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The Outlook

JUNE 4, 1910

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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SENATOR DEPEW ON THE SPANISH WAR

Senator Depew is reported by the daily papers to have said that popular demand forced the war with Spain on the country, that President McKinley was opposed to it, that as favorable terms could have been obtained from Spain without war as with war, and that Spain was prepared to abandon Cuba and Porto Rico to prevent humiliation if she could be assured in advance of the acceptance of the proposition. The Outlook ventures to doubt the accuracy of these statements, which have been frequently made by the press, and it will continue to doubt them in the absence of the publication of official correspondence demonstrating beyond question their accuracy. It is true that President McKinley was opposed to the war if the liberation of Cuba could be secured by any other means, but it is not true that he was prepared to abandon Cuba after having held out hopes of emancipation to her, and, in our judgment, it is not true that her emancipation could have been secured by other means than war. Doubtless Spain was prepared to make large promises, doubtless Spain would have promised almost anything, and have given assurances that she would retain simply a nominal sovereignty over the island. But any proposal to give to Cuba anything less than absolute independence would have been rejected by the Cuban people; no proposal to retain a nominal sovereignty by Spain over Cuba would have been considered by them; they had been deluded too often by false promises; and the abandonment of Cuba altogether would have seemed to the people of Spain a national humiliation, and might easily have involved the Spanish Government in a revolution at home. For political conditions in Spain were very critical; and no great provocation was necessary to bring about a revolution in that country. The Spanish Government did not know its own naval weakness and had no suspicion of the naval strength of the United States. Between the peril of revolution at home and the peril of war with the United States, Spain chose the latter. Considering the then existing political condition, the Spanish Government could not have decided otherwise without hazarding its own political existence.

THE TARIFF BOARD

Future tariffs may be constructed with some justice to the ultimate consumer instead of in favor of the special interests hitherto dominating such legislation. For last week the House of Representatives granted the $250,000 asked by President Taft for the use of his Tariff Board. We say "his;" but we might say "our." For this Board is really the representative of the people's desire. What they want is a tariff commission—a non-partisan, permanent body, reporting its investigations to Congress. What they have is a Tariff Board—a non-partisan but non-permanent body, reporting its investigations to the President. Some tariff commission legislation along the lines of the bills introduced by Mr. Beveridge in the Senate and by Mr. Fowler in the House will doubtless ultimately be enacted. Mr. Taft has long been in favor of such legislation, and he urged it upon a hostile Congress. But all that he could induce Congress to do in this direction last summer was to empower him "to employ such persons as may be required" "to secure information to assist" him in applying the maximum and minimum tariffs authorized by the Payne Act, and to

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assist "officers of the Government in the administration of the customs laws." For this service Congress appropriated $100,000. Why does the President want $250,000 more? The period for the application of the maximum tariff has passed. The Tariff Board's work, one might think, has been accomplished. Not at all. At any time other governments may impose unduly discriminatory duties, requiring, according to the Payne Law, the imposition of our maximum tariff. In order to act quickly the President must know from these "persons" just what is the cost, and each of its elements, of producing—both at the place of production and at the place of consumption—all articles specified in the tariff law. To gather and classify such information for the President's use is the duty of these "persons." That is all very well, thought Congressmen. They wanted no scientific body to report to them the wrong statistics—and they gave the President this "toy." He promptly appointed a non-partisan Tariff Board of three members. They have been of service far beyond the limits laid down by Congress, just as the President knew they would be. The impartial information reported by them was certainly necessary for the above-mentioned purpose. But it was also, and primarily, necessary for another purpose. In signing the Payne Act, Mr. Taft said that while, taken as a whole, it was the best tariff measure yet passed by the Republican party, it did not give the downward revision he desired, and which was implied in the Republican party platform. However, after lowering the revision somewhat by influencing the conferees between the Houses and obtaining from them all he could, he signed the measure. He cherished no illusions as to its finality; he regarded it simply as a bridge to a better bill, and, when that other bill is framed, it may owe its being to the President and to the Tariff Board. Mr. Taft has said that he wants the Board's impartial information for use in recommending to Congress such changes in any existing schedules as he may deem necessary—the outrageous wool schedule, for instance. He will have the benefit of the information for this purpose, even though Congressmen, in voting the $250,000, balked at such an authorization. Their real reason was their objection to put themselves in the light of demanding another tariff revision. Their technical reason was that in the Sundry Appropriation Bill, including this particular appropriation, no authorization of a new purpose may be admitted. Hence the President still has in his discretion the use of money for a purpose authorized by law, but including a purpose not so authorized. This latter purpose is of primary importance in his eyes. Despite his dicta as to the withdrawals of public lands from entry, Mr. Taft has broadly interpreted his executive duty as regards the tariff.

THE NEW BATTLE-SHIPS

The Senate last week authorized two battle-ships to be added to the navy. They are to be of about 27,000 tons displacement. The word "displacement" sometimes puzzles those who think only in terms of tonnage. As a rule, the navy thinks in terms of displacement; the merchant marine in terms of tonnage. The latter is naturally not so much interested in the amount of water displaced by a ship as in her carrying capacity. Hence ships of our merchant marine are described first in terms of gross tonnage—this comprises all inclosed spaces—and second in terms of registered tonnage, namely, the gross tonnage less deductions for captain's, officers', engineers', and crew's quarters, deck shelter for passengers, etc. Thus when we speak of two 27,000-ton battleships we do not mean two vessels each of 27,000 tons carrying capacity, as the term is generally used in our merchant marine. Such a vessel might possibly have a 37,000-ton displacement. A navy, therefore, may seem more formidable than it really is. But to be a navy at all it should be formidable. We do not believe, as Mr. Burton declared in the Senate debate last week, that every new battle-ship is an invitation to war. We believe, as Senator Lodge argued, that the proper maintenance of a strong navy is the greatest guarantee of peace. As he added, the revenue cutter service may not be able to show in dollars and cents a saving to the Government, but when we consider that this service, by its very existence, prevents wholesale smuggling, its protection to the

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country's revenues is enormous; in like manner the fire and police departments of cities, by preventive measures, save our municipalities from incalculable loss; on this theory the American navy has been built. We heartily subscribe to this; but we presume that Senator Lodge himself would agree with us that wherever the cost of naval construction is excessive, restrictions in naval strength should be brought about by international agreements. In these agreements the American Government will inevitably be a leader, for, fortunately, its naval policy has never been determined by its ability to compete with other nations in the number and size of battle-ships. It has been determined entirely on the necessity of policing American interests and rendering effective a mission of peace in the world. The recent impudent defiances of arbitration by certain South American states, though they had agreed to submit to the arbitration decrees, show the desirability of having at hand methods to enforce those decrees. Neither individuals nor nations have progressed so far towards a millennium as entirely to eliminate the unruly element. If then, we are to have a strong navy, two things are necessary, a consistent policy and the cessation by Congress of meddling with mere details. As to the first, this is the third successive year that Congress has voted the two battle-ship increase recommended by Mr. Roosevelt. As to the second, the bill just passed shows some slight indication by Congress of a recognition that naval details had better be left to naval experts.

THE CONCLUSION OF THE PINCHOT-BALLINGER HEARINGS

With the meeting of May 20 the Committee which has been investigating the Interior Department and the Forestry Bureau concluded its hearing of testimony. The first meeting of the Committee to hear testimony was held on January 26. Since then there have been forty-five meetings. The record of the testimony, including the documents admitted as evidence, occupies over four thousand eight hundred pages, much of it in fine print. In addition to the testimony and arguments, which will finally appear in six bulky volumes, there is another equally thick volume, known as Senate Document 248, containing the copies of the papers, letters, and the like which were transmitted to Congress in response to a resolution asking for information on the subject. At the close of the hearings, Friday and Saturday of last week were set as the days on which the arguments of the counsel on each side were to be delivered, and it was decided that briefs by counsel be filed within fifteen days thereafter. The whole matter will thus be before the Committee by June 13. It has not been officially decided when a report of the Committee will be ready for submission to Congress. It has been intimated that the members of the Committee will not be ready with their final opinions until some time next December. We cannot believe that there is any real necessity for such delay. It is true that Senator Root, one of the members, has sailed for The Hague. It is also true that the record of the case is extraordinarily voluminous, and that Congress will not reassemble until next December. Nevertheless, the country is entitled to relief from the controversy into which this Committee has been searching, and that relief should be as speedy as possible. Moreover, if there is any danger involved in the present management of the Interior Department, it is not right that months should go by before action can be taken to remove that danger. On the other hand, the Secretary of the Interior is entitled to receive as soon as possible whatever benefit may be derived from the opinion that any member of the Committee may formulate. However wearied the American people may be of the details of this controversy, they are not and they will not be indifferent to the wrongs or evils which the controversy may be instrumental in revealing. Unnecessary postponement of the righting of those wrongs or of the correction of those evils will, we believe, be resented by public opinion and react injuriously upon those responsible for it.

SECRETARY BALLINGER'S SUBORDINATES ASSUME RESPONSIBILITY

Between the time that Secretary Ballinger was released from cross-examination and the conclusion of the hearings several subordinates in the Interior De-

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partment gave their testimony. Like their colleagues who had been before on the witness-stand, they accepted responsibility for many actions and communications for which Mr. Ballinger, first as Commissioner of the Land Office, then as a practicing attorney, and finally as Secretary of the Interior, has been held accountable. First Mr. Schwartz, Chief of Field Service (officer in general charge of the investigations carried on by the General Land Office), was heard. His testimony related principally to the details of matters already brought before the Committee. Those who have followed these proceedings will remember that one of Mr. Glavis's complaints was that he was prevented by orders given by his superiors from investigating the Cunningham claims in Alaska for several months, namely, between May and October, 1908; and to show that he was thus hampered he introduced in evidence a letter written by Mr. Schwartz in October revoking a former order to stop investigation and stating explicitly the reasons for the suspension. On the stand Mr. Schwartz said that he wrote that letter so as to relieve Mr. Glavis, who was his friend, from being charged with dilatoriness, and he ascribed Mr. Glavis's delay, not to orders from the office, but to the desire on Mr. Glavis's part to keep these claims in a state of suspense with the hope that Congress might pass a law clearly rendering them invalid. Even such a reason as Mr. Schwartz gives involved no intimation of self-interest on Mr. Glavis's part, but at worst only a misguided zeal on behalf of the public interest. Mr. Schwartz was a ready witness, very clear-headed and apt in expression. He frankly indicated that he was governed in his official duties by considerations of personal friendship and by a loyalty to the interests of his particular bureau as distinguished from the interest of some other bureau or department. His breeziness and familiar language often amused the Committee even when most nearly affronting their dignity. Mr. Schwartz was followed by Mr. Dennett, who was Assistant Commissioner of the General Land Office when Mr. Ballinger was Commissioner, and is now Mr. Ballinger's successor as head of that bureau and his immediate subordinate in charge of all Land Office matters. In contrast with Mr. Schwartz, Mr. Dennett was deliberate in his manner, sometimes speaking as if he were reciting what he had committed to memory. His language on the stand was circumspect; in this respect his testimony was in striking contrast with some of the letters of his which he was called upon by his own counsel, as well as by Mr. Glavis's counsel, to explain. Mr. Dennett denied that he had had any business relations or even a personal acquaintance beyond a casual meeting with a certain claimant, as Mr. Glavis had intimated. It is evident from Mr. Dennett's testimony that he has little sympathy with the view that coal land should be kept in "cold storage," to use his own phrase—that is, preserved as the property of the Government, to be mined only as the Government might direct. In general Mr. Dennett's attitude of mind was in harmony with the traditions of the Land Office, and was favorable to Mr. Ballinger's course. He could understand Mr. Glavis's zeal only as a sort of gloating over the prospect of depriving coal entrymen of their titles. Mr. Lawler, the official who prepared the Lawler memorandum, was examined and cross-examined at some length. On the stand he was irascible and reckless in statement. He acknowledged that he had for many months entertained animosity toward Mr. Glavis. Mr. Perkins, the engineer in the Reclamation Service who received a monthly check from a railway with which the Government was regularly transacting business, and who was exonerated by Secretary Ballinger, was called upon to explain his actions. His testimony did not materially modify the evidence that had already been given on the subject.

MR. KERBY'S REVELATION

In many respects the most dramatic occurrence in the course of the whole investigation was the examination of a stenographer in the Interior Department, Mr. Frederick M. Kerby. The story that Mr. Kerby had to tell concerned the preparation of the now famous Lawler memorandum. For weeks he had known that Mr. Brandeis, Mr. Glavis's counsel, had been seeking to introduce evidence

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with regard to this document, which had been prepared in exoneration of Mr. Ballinger by Mr. Ballinger's own official counsel, and submitted to the President as a proposed basis for the President's action, not merely in sustaining Mr. Ballinger, but also in condemning Mr. Glavis. This stenographer had written at Mr. Lawler's dictation a part of this document, had been present during a part of its final preparation, knew the circumstances of secrecy which surrounded its production and transmission, knew who were involved in its preparation, and was familiar with its contents. He had known that Mr. Brandeis was trying to have it produced in evidence before the Committee. He felt that it was important that the public should know about this document. Yet as a stenographer he realized that there was a confidence reposed in him which made it a very serious matter for him to communicate to any one else his knowledge on the subject. At the suggestion of a friend he called on ex-Secretary Garfield and ex-Forester Pinchot, but received from them no direct advice as to what course to pursue. He felt greatly the burden of his knowledge. He also foresaw that if he divulged any of it he would not only probably be dismissed and lose the means of support for himself and his wife, but also suffer in reputation. So long as it was possible that the document might still be called forth in a regular way Mr. Kerby kept silent; but finally, when the Committee voted against asking the Attorney-General for memoranda in his possession, Mr. Kerby felt that he must speak. Consultation with his wife brought him to the conclusion that his duty was plain. He therefore prepared and gave out to the press a long statement. In this statement he tells in detail how confidentially this memorandum was prepared, how closely every copy was guarded. He tells how he and another stenographer and Mr. Ballinger's secretary and Mr. Lawler gathered up the rough drafts and how then they, with the possible exception of Mr. Lawler, took them into another room and burned them. They did this because Mr. Lawler said that it would not be safe to trust them to the waste-basket. Mr. Kerby told how copies were secreted. When Mr. Kerby was asked by Senator Root whether he realized that he had done a disreputable thing in speaking of this matter, he replied that he felt that his obligation to the public was greater than his obligation to any superior official. Mr. Kerby evidently regarded his oath of office, which is the same as that of a Cabinet officer, as placing upon him a greater obligation to the country than that which he might have as a so-called confidential secretary to his superior.

HETCH-HETCHY

Last week, at the Interior Department, Secretary Ballinger held a hearing on the question of revoking a permit granted by Secretary Garfield in May, 1908, to the city of San Francisco authorizing the contingent use of the Hetch-Hetchy region in the Yosemite National Park as a source of water supply. By the terms of Mr. Garfield's permit San Francisco would be able to draw a water supply from the Hetch-Hetchy Valley whenever the demands of the city exceeded the full capacity of the neighboring Lake Eleanor. Last winter Dr. George Otis Smith, Director of the Geological Survey, and two engineers of the Reclamation Service reported that Lake Eleanor is ample to meet the city's prospective needs. The city authorities, however, maintain an opposite view. In order to make the hearing as judicial as possible, Secretary Ballinger invited the attendance of a board of army engineers, and three officials were designated by the President for that purpose. Under their questionings it developed that, though nine years have passed since the first filings were made upon the Hetch-Hetchy site, no real attempt had been made to investigate; that the city had been led by its authorities into voting a bond issue of $45,000,000 to develop a water supply concerning which it has no sufficient engineering information and in respect to which its representatives begged Mr. Ballinger last week to grant more time for investigation. Mr. Harroun, the engineer commissioned by the Society for the Preservation of National Parks, then showed that the Lake Eleanor and Cherry Creek sites were sufficient to furnish all that the city's prospective population would require up to 1948. After consid-

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ering the arguments pro and con, Secretary Ballinger announced that he would suspend final decision for a year, during which another investigation would be made, this time not by officials representing bureaus in the Interior Department, but by a board of army engineers to whom the San Francisco authorities are to report from time to time the results of their thorough municipal examination as to the sources of every available water supply, including river waters that may be made pure by filtration. Such a decision affords opportunity for a campaign of education by the above-mentioned society, the American Civic Association, and the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, all of which were well represented at the hearing. The Outlook has already appealed to Congress to refuse to confirm Secretary Garfield's permit. Five hundred square miles of the Yosemite Park, belonging to all the people, ought not to be sacrificed for the alleged needs of San Francisco, unless it can be shown that no other sufficient source of water supply is available. Not only is the Hetch-Hetchy Valley in danger, but the proper domestic use of water supply involved in the control of the Tuolumne River, which flows through the valley, requires the exclusion of the public from the whole drainage area of the Tuolumne River. This includes about *half* of the Yosemite National Park. The principle that the people as a whole should not part with their possessions to special interests has been emphasized by the history of public lands other than our National parks. As regards the parks, it is now emphasized by the Spring Valley Water Company, which, as Mr. Garfield admits, has San Francisco by the throat.

THE DUTIES ON PASSENGERS' BAGGAGE

The recent arrest of a well-known ex-Governor of one of the New England States, and of his wife and son, at the port of New York, on the charge of smuggling, the discovery of non-declared dutiable goods in their pieces of baggage and the consequent fine of $5,500, may warn amateur smugglers to comply with the passenger provisions in the law. This is specially emphasized in the case above mentioned, as this particular ex-Governor had long been a high-tariff advocate. In this connection it is well to call the attention of travelers to Europe to certain new regulations which now apply to them. The main provision in the Payne Law concerning passengers allows them to import, free of duty, wearing apparel, toilet articles, and other personal effects not for sale, the total not to exceed $100 in value. Some returning travelers seem to think that this hundred dollars may be used to cover a great quantity of tobacco and cigars. The provision does not apply in this case. If tobacco and cigars up to the value of a hundred dollars were allowed free entry when brought in by actual passengers, many persons might enter upon the business of making regular trips from this country to ports in Cuba and return. The regulation allowing the free importation of fifty cigars and three hundred cigarettes for the traveler's personal use would seem to be sufficiently generous. A second feature to be noted is to be found in the new regulations as to household goods. Hitherto non-residents have been permitted to bring household effects free of duty into the United States in quantities needed to furnish their homes here and of a value suitable to their station in life, providing they had had actual abode in one place abroad for one year or had been abroad two years without fixed residence. The new order eliminates the one-year-residence qualification. It has been abused. Americans traveling abroad for a year would accumulate choice effects, send them to some address at which they had paid a year's rental, and, with a rent receipt, obtain free admission for their collection. Hereafter import duties will have to be paid on articles in excess of the hundred-dollar exemption, unless the person bringing in the household effects has been abroad for two years or more. Collector Loeb's administration of the Custom-House in by far our greatest port has been marked, among others, by two notable results as to the experience of arriving passengers. First, the average time occupied by the customs examination has been cut down by half. Second, the entrance of passengers into America has been made easier for the honest, but harder for the dishonest.

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DIRECT NOMINATIONS DEFEATED AGAIN

The New York Legislature last week once more rejected the principle of direct nominations. When the Hinman-Green bill, which embodied a new device intended to combine the direct nomination of all candidates by party voters with the preservation of party leadership, had been defeated in both Houses, a compromise measure was prepared applying the methods of the defeated bill to the nomination of members of the Legislature, Congressmen, and county officers. While this measure was under consideration sharp tactics by a bi-partisan alliance of Republican and Democratic Senators secured the passage in the Senate of the Meade-Phillips bill, a measure purporting to provide primary reform, but actually strengthening the control of professional politicians upon the party machinery. This bill was as promptly passed in the Assembly. In spite of this fact, by the use of the Republican caucus, the compromise measure also passed the Senate and was sent to the Assembly. Under the rules it could not be considered there for several days unless an emergency message was received from the Governor. But it had not been there long before the message appeared. In it the Governor declared his intention of vetoing the Meade-Phillips bill when it should reach him, on the ground that it was "not a grant but a denial of needed primary reform." He expressed the hope that before adjourning the Legislature would provide "for a suitable measure for the correction of primary abuses," and would thus respond to what he believed to be "a just and urgent demand of the people of the State." The Governor's opponents in the Assembly seemed roused to fury by what they declared to be his unprecedented action in announcing before a measure was officially before him what his action upon it would be. With scant ceremony the Assembly took up the measure recommended by the Governor and rejected it. Speaker Wadsworth and his companion members of the "Old Guard" apparently are determined that greater voice in the control of the party shall not be given to the voters of the party. Perhaps they realize too well what their fate might be if they had to seek nomination directly at the hands of the voters and not from delegates whom they know so well how to control. In close harmony with the action of the Assembly in twice rejecting the principle of direct nominations was the provision by the Legislature for an inquiry into the question of legislative and administrative corruption. Such an inquiry was recommended to the Legislature by Governor Hughes, but the measure as finally passed is declared by the more enlightened members of the Senate to be farcical in its provisions. The investigation is so much hedged about with restrictions that it is not believed that its results can be in any degree satisfactory.

SOME ADMIRABLE LEGISLATION

While the Legislature has repudiated direct nominations and apparently stifled the corruption inquiry before it has begun, it has enacted several admirable measures. One of the two Employers' Liability bills, which have already been described in The Outlook, was enacted last week. It provides for an optional system of compensation for industrial accidents, which may be adopted by any employer and his employees upon agreement. But, what is perhaps more fundamentally important, it modifies the rules of the common law dealing with the assumption of risk, contributory negligence, and the action of fellow-servants. These rules have for years constituted the greatest barrier to the securing of adequate and equitable compensation by employees injured in industrial accidents. The enactment of this legislation, tentative and partial as its provisions are, is a first step away from the disgraceful conditions in relation to industrial accidents which have ruled not only in New York State, but in many other States. In this matter we are far behind European countries. This legislation is a hopeful sign that we are beginning to realize our unenlightened condition and to correct it. A second admirable bill which has passed the Legislature is that giving the Public Service Commissions jurisdiction over telephone and telegraph companies. Such companies are purveyors of public service in scarcely less degree than railways and rapid transit lines. It is as logical as it is

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desirable that they should be under the same measure and kind of regulation. The provisions of the insurance laws, passed as a result of the Hughes insurance investigation, limiting the amount of business which a company might write in any one year have been repealed. Many practical insurance men have always felt that this limitation was unnecessary and unwise, and Governor Hughes, who felt very strongly when this legislation was under consideration that the limitation was a wise one, now approves of its repeal. Another bill gives to the Board of Estimate of New York City the power to appoint a commission on inebriety and to establish a home to which inebriates may be committed for treatment. This is a move in the direction of scientific administration and away from the old haphazard rule of thumb. The practice of sending drunkards "to the Island" for ten days, thus merely giving them a chance to sober up in order that they may come back to the city and get drunk again, is ridiculous. Inebriety is a disease which needs expert medical treatment. The habitual drunkard does an injury to society which cannot be remedied by spasmodic punishment of his periodic outbreaks. Cure of his disease, not punishment for the effects of the disease, is what he needs. Two bills which have been sent by the Legislature to the Governor for signature complete the work of eliminating gambling from race-tracks which was begun by Governor Hughes in his first term. The laws passed at that time did away with the more open forms of bookmaking, but the courts decided that they did not interfere with oral betting and informal bookmaking. The present bills prohibit bookmaking "with or without writing," and make the directors of race-track associations liable for violations of the anti-gambling laws on their tracks. The Governor has signed the bills passed by the Legislature enabling the State to accept the gift by Mrs. E. H. Harriman and others of land for the purposes of a State park. The bond issue of two and a half million dollars provided for in the bills must be referred to the voters for ratification. But we do not fear that this fine act of public spirit on the part of Mrs. Harriman and her associates will be met by the people in any but a generous and grateful spirit.

PRINCETON'S GRADUATE SCHOOL ENDOWED

By the will of the late Isaac Chauncey Wyman, a graduate of Princeton in the year 1848, a rich endowment has been provided for Princeton's Graduate School. The amount of funds which will be available under this will is at present uncertain, but it has been variously estimated at from two to ten million dollars. An interesting fact in connection with this bequest is that Mr. Wyman's will was drawn before the controversy arose over the proposed endowment of a Graduate School by Mr. Procter, and it is therefore evident that the gift was not suggested by anything connected with that controversy. The method providing for the employment of this exceedingly generous gift is peculiar and unusual. Mr. Wyman's will appoints two trustees. One of them is the Hon. John M. Raymond, formerly Mayor of Salem, Massachusetts, the town in which Mr. Wyman lived, and in which he died; the other trustee is Dean West, of Princeton. These two trustees are by the will given power to pay over to the trustees of Princeton University such sums "as a wise administration of this estate may warrant for such uses and purposes as are now or may hereafter be determined by the trustees of Princeton University in enlarging and extending the power, usefulness, and higher service and scholarship of said University through said Graduate College." But the trustees under the will—that is, Dean West and Mr. Raymond—are also instructed that the estate shall be "devoted and applied for the establishing and maintenance and development or aiding, in any way the trustees deem best, the Graduate College or the proposed Graduate College of Princeton University, which the trustees of said University have devised and sanctioned and are now carrying into effect to become a part of said University." It is evident, therefore, that under this arrangement Dean West and Mr. Raymond will have a greater power in deciding what properly comes under the injunctions of the last-quoted sentences than is common in such cases. It is pointed out, for in-

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stance, that it may be urged that the only graduate college which the University trustees "have devised and sanctioned and are now carrying into effect" would be a college on the plan formulated in Dean West's book on this subject, and at the time approved by the University authorities. The whole controversy which led to the withdrawal of Mr. Procter's offer turned upon a disagreement between Dean West and President Wilson, and their respective followers, as to whether Mr. Procter's gift was to be bound down in such a way that it was impossible to urge a compromise between the opposed views as to the site of the dormitories of the proposed school; and, what is more important, as to its method of government. It would seem that there should now be no difficulty as between reasonable men devoted to the interests of the University in agreeing upon a plan by which Mr. Wyman's money can be most effectively applied to the real object which all have in view. Whether the dormitories of the Graduate School are on the campus or not; and, if not, how far away they might properly be placed, are questions that ought not to present any serious obstacles. Neither ought it to be impossible for the Princeton authorities to agree upon a plan in which there would be no danger of injury to that spirit of democracy which should be maintained in an American university. What is vitally important, as we remarked at the time of the former discussion, is that the control of the University, and consequently the control of any integral part of the University, must be retained by the responsible authorities. The Graduate School cannot, and we are sure will not, be an independent, dissociated institution; it must form part of the work and life of the University.

THE WORLD'S SUNDAY-SCHOOLS

The World's Sunday-School Association, whose two preceding meetings were held in Rome and Jerusalem, has been holding its sixth meeting in Washington, attended by representatives of fifty-one nationalities. A resolution of Congress gave it welcome, and President Taft gave it greeting in an address which declared the Sunday-school to be one of "the great instrumentalities for making the world better, more moral, and more religious." These conventions are for conference and fellowship; the arrangement of lesson courses is the province of the International Committee. Much importance is attached to the observance of the "World Sunday-School Day" for the promotion of world-wide interest. On May 22 the schools in the Sunday-School Union throughout the world were engaged in the same programme of services—hymns, responsive reading, and prayer—in a hundred languages and dialects. On the day before, President and Mrs. Taft, Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Bryan, King George and President Diaz, were made life members of the Association, $1,000 being subscribed for each name. In the case of Mr. Roosevelt subscriptions were limited by general demand to one dollar. Great enthusiasm was exhibited. The color line was unfortunately drawn by the local committee in excluding negroes from a parade of men's Bible classes. This was strongly censured by British delegates, among others. The excuse offered for it was that the negro Sunday-schools of the District had never availed themselves of opportunity to join the District Association, and were therefore treated as outsiders. The unpleasantness was atoned for when Dr. Booker T. Washington was made a life member of the Association on nomination by a white Kentuckian, "as a tribute to the Christian negroes of the world." The necessary subscription of $1,000 was promptly pledged, mostly, it is said, by delegates from Southern States.

THE AMERICAN-CANADIAN BOUNDARY

Mr. Knox, Secretary of State, and Mr. Bryce, British Ambassador at Washington, have now signed a treaty delimiting the boundary between the United States and Canada, or, to be more exact, between Maine and New Brunswick. The treaty has been submitted to the Senate for approval. This action, subject to the Senate's approval, settles the one remaining boundary question between the United States and Great Britain. Ever since 1783 the exact location of this particular boundary has been in dispute. In that year the greater portion was delimited, but no agreement

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could be reached regarding the line at this point. Soon thereafter a joint committee was created and charged with the duty of reaching an agreement on the line, but failed of its purpose. In the General Boundary Treaty of a year ago it was provided that if no agreement could be reached on the boundary at this particular point within a given period, the question should be submitted to arbitration. Fortunately, Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce were able to conclude that the point at issue was not of sufficient importance to warrant the expense and trouble of an arbitral appeal. Accordingly, they undertook negotiations and concluded them to their mutual satisfaction. The necessary compromise is expected to meet the approval of all concerned. The General Boundary Treaty not only delimited the water boundaries between the United States and Canada, but provided for an equitable disposition of the water to be withdrawn for power purposes. It was negotiated by Secretary Root. It was ratified in the closing hours of the Sixtieth Congress, on the morning of March 4, 1909. It provided for a commission to mark clearly and permanently the boundaries entirely across the continent. That work is now being performed, and only the short line through Passamaquoddy Bay remained in question. If the proposed delimitation of this line is sanctioned, the last occasion for a boundary dispute with Great Britain has been dispelled.

ECUADOR AND PERU

We are glad to say that in their boundary dispute the Governments of both Ecuador and Peru have recognized the principle of international mediation by formally accepting the proposal of the Governments of the United States, Brazil, and Argentina. As a condition of the offer, Ecuador and Peru must suspend the mobilization of their troops and withdraw from the border. Accordingly no further steps will be taken by our own Government or by the Governments of Brazil and Argentina until the troops have been withdrawn. This condition complied with, the three mediating Governments will immediately take steps to carry forward a definite plan for the settlement of the differences between the two countries. That plan may include an international commission of inquiry. Such a commission could hardly render any judgment or apply to the facts found any principle of law. In its turn, the advisory work of mediation and of a commission of inquiry will, we hope, be followed by the judicial work of arbitration.

A REMARKABLE PASTORATE

In this epoch of restless churches, short pastorates, and itinerant ministers, the recent celebration of the completion of the fortieth year of Dr. R. S. MacArthur's pastorate in New York City would of itself be a notable event. The peculiar character of that pastorate and its remarkable achievements make the event still more worthy of note. Forty years ago Robert S. MacArthur, then a young man fresh from the Theological Seminary, and without any pastoral experience, took a downtown church in New York City, made it an aggressive force in the community, moved it uptown to a fine location, increased its membership and its influence continually, and in this maelstrom of humanity held his own as preacher and administrator, till he is virtually the patriarch of all evangelical denominations. The historical sermon which he preached Sunday morning, May 15, recorded the building of a church edifice costing $525,000, the reception of 5,000 members into the church, and the contribution of over $2,000,000 for church and mission work. The church has now a property worth at least a million, free from debt, and an endowment fund of $50,000 bearing interest. The reader of this simple statement of eloquent facts rightly concludes that the pastor is a man of broad and facile mind and unusual power of self-expression. But the reader may also be sure that such a work as this is not achieved merely by pulpit oratory. It shows executive ability, patience under difficulty, steadfastness, which is a not too common virtue in America, a mind intellectually progressive and spiritually conservative, an unquestioned courage, and the loyal support of a church which, whatever the question, has believed not less than its pastor in the "liberty of prophesying." We congratulate both pastor and church, and we commend the example of both to the consideration of pastors and churches generally.

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THE NEGRO IN AMERICA

Sir Harry Johnston has written a really noteworthy book on this subject; excellent in matter, and no less excellent in form, for the printing is good and satisfactory to the eye, and its numerous illustrations are admirable in their interest and value. Probably no other man alive is as well fitted to treat the subject. He has had a long experience as administrator over the negro race in Africa, serving in various British protectorates, and finally as Governor in Uganda. He has ruled over tribes of widely varying qualities and capacities. He is a trained scientific observer, desirous to ascertain the facts exactly as they are, with an extraordinary fund of knowledge and remarkable insight and power of getting at the kernel of things. He has devoted an immense amount of time to the study of the negro and of his relations with the white man; he has made this study close at hand, and many of his theories he has tested by practice. He has a fine fearlessness and love of truth, and a generous scorn of all that is mean or base or hypocritical, and especially of cruelty in every form; yet he is a practical man and no mere sentimentalist. He is an excellent writer; a recent article of his on the "Rise of the Native" should be distributed as a tract to every statesman or philanthropist who is concerned with international affairs. Finally, he is exceedingly interesting; no small virtue in a writer on serious subjects. He has his own views—very positive ones—on every question, whether connected with his subject or not, and he presents these views with picturesque vividness and force. Incidentally, I may say that on most of these questions I entirely agree with him—from his denunciation of the senseless slaughter of birds and his indignation at our fatuity in giving a fine new fruit such an utterly inept name as "grape-fruit," to his surprise that American artists should lack the originality to see that the Southern States, especially the Gulf and South Atlantic States, offer an untouched field of extraordinary beauty and picturesqueness to the landscape painter. But when he suddenly assails such diverse objects of wrath as freemasonry and the American accent—why, I can only plead guilty on both counts, and cannot even say that I am repentant!

Now, with such a temperament, it is inevitable that he should arouse antagonisms. Strongly though I agree with, and support, most of his principles, I emphatically dissent from some of his opinions—especially some of his *obiter dicta*—in the book before me. In a letter to me about this book he writes: "You will be annoyed, perhaps, at what I say about the South, but I am also attacking a Home Devil, for there are plenty of people living in England to-day who would do quite as much against public liberty to further their private ends as the South attempted in the '50s of the last century. And if I rail at the Southerners, you will see I am equally down on Britain, Holland, France, and all other early colonizing powers." Now, I am myself half of Southern blood; I am the descendant of slaveholders—until the day of their death I pensioned two of my Southern grandfather's ex-slaves, whom I had never seen, but whom I knew intimately through the stories my mother and her sister had told me of them; and there is still living one such ex-slave who does not need a pension, but who knows she would have it on the instant if she ever did need it. Nevertheless, I most heartily join with Sir Harry in his attacks on slavery wherever it existed (he is entirely impartial in making them), and in his thorough exposure of its hideous cruelty, and of the degradation it brought even more on the white man who championed it and profited by it than on the black man who suffered under it; and I think such exposure a good thing, for, as the evil no longer exists, people tend to forget how dreadful it was, and a few persons of warped morality tend to speak of it apologetically, or even in guarded praise. Moreover, I cordially admit that Sir Harry is wholly free from any insincerity or partiality or lack of uprightness in judgment, and that he condemns only conduct which ought to be condemned, and this without regard to nationality or creed. He praises with indifference the Jesuits and the Baptists when they upheld the rights of the slaves; he condemns with equal strictness Catholics and Protestants when, in the name of their church and their religion, they apolo-

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gized for and defended, or failed to take action against, the infamy of slavery. He condemns slavery in the West Indies under the Englishman just as much as under the Spaniard, the Dutchman, or the Frenchman, just as much as he condemns slavery in the United States under the American; and he shows again and again not only his hearty good will towards the American, but especially his admiration for and belief in the American of the Southern States. Yet, while not merely admitting, but emphasizing, this earnest striving after complete fairness on the part of our author, I must add that I do not think that he lays sufficient stress on the extraordinary difficulty of the situation in which the Southerners found themselves—a situation which they inherited from forefathers who were little if at all more responsible for it than were the men of the Northern Colonies and of England. The men and women of the South face a situation of extraordinary difficulty; and outsiders can do most good in the matter by giving whatever aid is possible to the great multitude among them who are striving heart and soul to solve the hard problem set them in a spirit of wisdom, justice, and mercy, and with serious and painful effort to do what is for the real interest of both races. The people of each section of our country have their own especial virtues and their own especial shortcomings; and each section has something to learn from every other section.

These objections are merely to matters of detail. The net judgment must be that the book is a capital book, wholesome and sound; there is no other on the subject to be compared with it; and it is equally valuable to the student, and to the intelligent man who, without being a student, is interested in the great questions of the present time. Nowhere else can be found so vivid and truthful a presentation of the negro in the Western Hemisphere. The first chapter treats with frankness of the negro in his own home. Sir Harry has as little sympathy for an unhealthy sentimentalist as for a callous moneyed exploiter of poor men, or for a greedy and cruel poor man who is equally willing to prey on rich men and on other poor men. He shows that the negro in his own land has tended, if anything, to go backward rather than forward, and that the chief hope for him in Africa arises from the growth of influence from without and from the entry of other races into the dark continent. In another chapter he treats of the slave trade, and scourges it as it deserves; there never was a greater crime against humanity than the African slave trade with America, nor one which, of and by itself, wrought more signal vengeance on the race that perpetuated it; for the ease and profit of the slave-traders and slave-buyers has been paid for, with a price of incredible bitterness, by us their descendants. In the West Indies it caused the ethnic loss of half the islands to the offending race.

Then come a number of exceedingly interesting chapters on slavery in the New World under the Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch, French, and English, and a sketch of the present position of the former slave territories of these peoples. One curious point which is brought out is the extraordinary change in the treatment of the blacks by each white nationality in different periods and under different conditions. The Portuguese were among the most callously brutal of all the slave-traders; they have clung to what is practically slavery in Africa long after all other nations have abandoned it; and yet their treatment of the negroes in Brazil has been particularly good. The Spaniards were the most merciless oppressors of the "Amerindians" (the name Sir Harry, quite properly, applies to the American Indians, who have never had a general name that either really belonged to them or was exclusively theirs), and yet on the whole they behaved better to their negro slaves than any other people. The Dutch in Guiana showed themselves the worst and most cruel of taskmasters; yet nowadays the condition of the negroes in Guiana is exceptionally fortunate. Sir Harry's description of Hayti is altogether too short; but it is far and away the best we have, and is a healthy antiseptic to much of the stuff that has been written about the island and its people. There is one point which his writings make clear: the great loss Hayti suffered, compared to the other West Indian islands, from the success of its revolution and the ensuing complete severance from all white leader-

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ship. At this moment Hayti is more backward than any other West Indian island, her average negro citizen is less well off than the corresponding negro in any of the other islands, and the general social condition is worse and contains less promise than in any other island; and all because the other islands have been through a process of evolution instead of revolution. There was ample moral warrant for the Haytian revolution at the end of the eighteenth century; nevertheless, its success was a curse, for its success, with the dreadful accompanying atrocities, put off the day when emancipation came to the other islands; and, moreover, in a short time emancipation would have inevitably come to Hayti anyhow, with comparatively little shock and dislocation; and then there would have been left in the island, as in the other islands, an element naturally fit for uplifting leadership. But Sir Harry makes clear how grossly exaggerated are some of the slanders which have been repeated about Hayti ever since Spencer St. John published his interesting but wholly one-sided and therefore mischievous volume.

Incidentally Sir Harry's book shows the strong influence for good which has been exercised by our own Nation in Cuba and San Domingo. There was never a war in which so much was accomplished for humanity, at so small a cost of blood, as the war which resulted in the freeing of Cuba and the starting of the Philippines on the road towards self-government and civilization; while the more recent action of the United States in San Domingo gave that island its first chance to move forward along the path of honest and orderly liberty. It will always remain a marvel that the loudest self-styled champions of devotion to a high ideal of international righteousness should have been either lukewarm or else violently hostile in their attitude towards both these great movements for national morality and decency.

The chapters on the negro in the United States naturally possess for us a peculiar interest; and of these chapters those that treat of the negro and the white man as they now are appeal most to Americans whose chief concern is to deal with existing American problems, and to solve aright the questions pressing for settlement by the present generation, and who realize that in fighting the evil of to-day it is wise for the good men of to-day to join together without regard to their views of the past.

The account of Hampton and Tuskegee is admirable. The tribute to General Armstrong is as fine as it is well deserved; he is described as "good without being pietistic, essentially manly, hard-gritted and practical, having no delusions about the Negroes' or Amerindians' defects of character and racial drawbacks, but most large-hearted and universal in his sympathies . . . and treating every human being on his or her merits and capabilities." Sir Harry approves the curriculum at Hampton, though he desires a greater amount of scientific teaching; here he is undoubtedly right, as well as in his denunciation of over-insistence upon a barren theological dogmatism; but, rather curiously, he undervalues Bible teaching; if he would turn to what the great scientist Huxley said of the Bible, he would find well expressed the views of those of us who believe that the rising generation knows too little, and not too much, of this great storehouse of wisdom and morality. He states with admirable clearness the purpose of Hampton. It "endeavors to steer clear of any burning question, either State or Federal. It hopes to effect its purpose in the improvement of the Negro's social status by concentrating all its efforts on imparting a sound industrial training, and on the creation of a moral standard and a standard of domestic culture amongst the Negro students which may, by its spreading from this center (and from Tuskegee), create in time a self-respect amongst the colored people, a racial conscience which shall set up and maintain such high ideals of industry, talent, and morality that these qualities, becoming at last characteristic of the Negro race in the United States, may dissipate the race prejudice of the Caucasian and cause him to yield with a good grace a full recognition of the right on the part of his Negro fellow-citizen to absolutely equal treatment. . . . Least of all is there the slightest attempt to revive the bitterness between North and South." Surely such ideals are good for any institution of learning, whether the students be black or white.

With similar clearness, and complete

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approbation, Sir Harry describes Tuskegee and the aims of Booker Washington. "He has brushed aside all discussion of the political claims of the Negro, and the justice or the injustice of his treatment by the South, to concentrate his own attention and that of his listeners on the supreme necessity of making the Negro a valuable citizen of the United States. He wants the Negro to become the most industrious race in the United States, to live as well as possible, to eat well-cooked, wholesome food, set forth daintily, to build no house without a bath-room, to be fastidiously neat in person and dress, to be able to do everything, but most of all to be accomplished masons, architects, carpenters, cooks, dressmakers, tailors, hatters, plowmen, gardeners, cotton-growers, poultry-keepers, horse-breeders, carriage-builders, boot-makers, botanists, electricians," etc. Surely, again, a good ideal for any race!

Among the most interesting and valuable chapters in the book are those dealing with the negro as a citizen, especially in the Southern States, and with life in the Southern States. I by no means agree with all that Sir Harry says; I should often put the emphasis differently from the way in which he puts it; I think that his judgments are sometimes too favorable, and sometimes too unfavorable; but no one can read his book without appreciating his transparent sincerity and honesty, his acuteness and quickness of vision, his courage, and his hatred of all that is cruel and unclean. He deserves the gratitude of decent citizens for his protest against the method of treatment of one of the most loathsome forms of vice in New Orleans—and he could have written in substantially the same terms of most of the big cities of the country, North or South. The "flagrant man-swine" is seen at his worst when he both causes flaunting public scandal and tramples his victims into the mire, while at the same time refusing to accept any of the punishment visited with his approval on the vice for which he is himself mainly responsible.

It is a pleasant thing to read the final judgment of a visitor so obviously endeavoring to tell the exact truth:

"Yet, with all these imperfections in the social acceptance of the colored people of the United States—imperfections which with time and patience and according to the merits of the Neo-negro will disappear—the main fact was evident to me after a tour through the Eastern and Southern States of North America; that nowhere else in the world, certainly not in Africa, has the Negro been given such a chance of mental and physical development as in the United States. Also that nowhere else has the Negro so greatly availed himself of his opportunities. Intellectually, and perhaps physically, he has attained his highest degree of advancement as yet in the United States. Politically he is freer there, socially he is happier than in any other part of the world."

The book is of great interest and permanent value; and it should be in the library of every American who cares to devote a little thought to one of the largest of the problems of to-day.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Khartum, March 15, 1910.

THE ARMY AND THE RECLAMATION SERVICE

An editorial in the "Engineering News" for May 12 refers to a plan supposed to be in contemplation for a change in the organization of the Reclamation Service. As our readers know, the Reclamation Service is a bureau in the Department of the Interior, and is charged with the enormous task of making fruitful and habitable hundreds of thousands of acres of arid lands. Under the director and engineers of this bureau great engineering works have been undertaken for bringing water through huge aqueducts and systems of ditches to land that is unwatered by rain. This Service is extending the habitable boundaries of the country as truly as a conquering army, and is doing it in a peaceful manner that results only in increased production. No dramatic incidents or thrilling battles mark the progress of this conquest. That fact, however, does not make the Reclamation Service of any less value. Its work is done without the accompaniment of bands of music. It is none the less effective. The "Engineering News" announces that it has information that there is a plan

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to put this Reclamation Service in the charge of an army engineer.

This plan, the "Engineering News" says, will be made possible if a provision in a bill which has passed the House is made law. This provision reads "that the President may, in his discretion, detail any army engineer to the supervision or inspection of any engineering work or works of construction carried on by the Government pursuant to law." It is stated that there is a probability that this provision will be modified so as to exclude other departments of Government work than the Reclamation Service. The "Engineering News" opposes this plan on the three grounds that it will work injury to the profession of engineering, that it involves the separation from the Service of the present Director, Mr. Newell, and that it is a menace to reclamation.

At first thought the plan is an attractive one. The United States supports an army. The ultimate purpose of that army is, of course, the defense of the country; but for long periods of time it is not called upon to engage in war. On the other hand, it is a great resource. It comprises a great number of men who are capable of productive work. It is highly organized and can be easily controlled and managed. Its engineering corps includes men of engineering experience and ability of high order and proved efficiency. It surely seems sensible to turn the latent power of this large body of men to such productive service as the reclamation of the arid lands of the West. The Outlook has long held that there is no reason why an army, or a navy for that matter, should be maintained merely as a fighting machine, and has regarded it as a legitimate source of pride that the army has achieved such constructive results as are now visible, for example, in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines.

The turning over to the army, however, of this particular task of reclamation would be attended with difficulties which would result in little good and much ill. It is true that the army is a directing force in the construction of the Panama Canal, and Colonel Goethals has shown extraordinary vigor and ability in directing that task. The duty, however, of directing a particular engineering undertaking like that is quite different from the duty of taking charge of a branch of the Government involving, not merely one project, but a permanent policy with regard to a whole system and series of projects.

The idea that the army is idle and can advantageously be put to work is erroneous. The engineer corps of the army is, in fact, so heavily burdened with work that the problem is not how it can be employed, but how it can be strengthened to do the work that it has undertaken to do. Few people realize how much the engineer corps of the army is obliged to do in the improvement of rivers and harbors. The fact is that the very bill which contains this provision for adding to the engineering duties of the army also provides for an increase in the corps of engineers, in order to enable that corps to do what is already laid upon it.

Furthermore, the duty lying upon the director of the Reclamation Service is not solely an engineering duty; it is primarily an executive one. The head of that Service is as much an executive in function as the head of any other bureau. There is no more reason for looking to the army to supply an executive for this bureau than for any other bureau in the Government.

Even if, however, there were need to look for engineers, it cannot very well be explained why army engineers are particularly adapted to the task. The duties of the supervising engineers in reclamation work are similar in many respects to those of supervising engineers in commercial undertakings. Unlike most other Governmental constructions, and especially unlike military constructions, the reclamation projects raise the question of the relation of cost to income. Army engineers are accustomed, not without justification, to do their work and get the highest results with only very subsidiary regard to expense. Reclamation projects, on the contrary, depend for their success on the ability of the builders to keep down the cost of the investment to a figure which will justify the returns. It is therefore highly important that the supervising engineer in a reclamation project should have experience in drawing contracts and dealing with contractors. Furthermore, since all these projects are

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paid for, not out of the general treasury, but out of funds ultimately provided by the homesteaders whose lands are to be irrigated, there is special need that the reclamation work should be carried on not according to military but according to commercial standards.

Closely connected with this fact is the further fact that the engineers in charge of reclamation projects are dealing with people not accustomed to military practices or discipline. On the one hand, there are the laborers and the higher subordinates, who do not work well under the rules which army engineers would naturally expect to enforce. On the other hand, there are the homesteaders, whose co-operation is essential for the real success of the projects, and who cannot be expected to adapt themselves to any other methods than those which people employ in ordinary business dealing.

Finally, even if all these difficulties should prove readily surmountable (which seems to us most improbable), there remains one fact that alone renders the proposed plan, to our thinking, impracticable. The engineering of the reclamation projects is specialized. Although many forms of civil engineering are involved, the work is chiefly hydraulic engineering. Moreover, it is hydraulic engineering particularly adapted to irrigation. There are many civil engineers who are especially trained in this form of engineering. On the other hand, the military engineer has no particular reason for studying hydraulic engineering for irrigation purposes, and cannot be expected to have a special knowledge of the subject. We may suppose, however, that a military engineer put in charge of a reclamation project would set to work to inform himself in that particular branch of the profession. The organization of the army, however, is such that promotions in the Service would at frequent intervals lead to the transfer of such an officer to other work, leaving his place to be supplied by a successor who would in turn have to begin a special study of the subject. We see no reason whatever for subjecting the Reclamation Service to the burden of instructing military engineers in the subject of hydraulic engineering, when the Government not only can get hydraulic engineers from civil ranks but has already created an organization particularly adapted to the business of irrigation.

We hope that the provision to enable the President to designate a military engineer for the Reclamation Service will not become law. If it does, we hope that the President will not avail himself of the authority therein granted, but will rather give to the present Director of the Service the support to which the work he has so well done has entitled him.

THE EXECUTIVE'S DUTY

From his recent speeches President Taft has given the country to understand that he considers his duty as an executive officer to be bounded by the particular mandates of law. This has been emphasized in his comment on his power to withdraw public lands. He has declared that it is a very grave question whether the Executive has the power to make reservations *in extenso*.

Under the Roosevelt Administration in general, and in particular under the Garfield administration of the Department of the Interior in its care of the public domain, the principle was emphasized that the duty of an executive officer was not merely to do that which the law commanded, but also to do everything possible for the public welfare not prohibited by law. In this the Roosevelt Administration rested on a sure foundation. Indeed, as Mr. Garfield pointed out the other day in his Denver address, Chief Justice Marshall laid down the rule that the Constitution was an instrument for action, not a mere set of directory or prohibitory regulations. He said:

> Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the Constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consist with the letter and spirit of the Constitution, are Constitutional.

President Taft himself has provided us with an interesting and striking example of this interpretation. In discussing American work in the Philippines before a missionary society in May, 1908, he spoke as follows:

> It is said that there is nothing in the Constitution of the United States that authorizes national altruism of that sort. Well, of course there is not; but there is nothing in

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the Constitution of the United States that forbids it! What there is in the Constitution of the United States is a breathing spirit that we are a nation, with all the responsibilities that any nation ever had, and therefore, when it becomes the Christian duty of a nation to assist another nation, the Constitution authorizes it because it is part of national well-being.

If the Constitution can be thus interpreted for helping the Filipino, it should also be thus interpreted for protecting the great public interests of our own people.

THE SPECTATOR

Sometimes the Spectator stays at home. The confession is made to relieve the minds of anxious friends who admit picturing him, if not in the guise of Puck, at least in performance of that forty-minute globe-girdling feat which even the latest aviators have not yet rivaled. Home is to the mind of the Spectator what the earth was to the muscles of Antæus. Without the renewing touch of that most precious bit of earth, how can the eye keep its childlike freshness for the foreign or unfamiliar? And the converse, too, is true. The Spectator could not see even the beauties, the poetry, of homeland unless his eye were sharpened for them by the stimulant of absence.

And home likewise rewards the explorer. It has its zones—the familiar and settled, the newly surveyed, the scarce known, even the unexplored. One might write some day his "In Darkest Homeland" and yet not lack the adventurous. The changing seasons cause migrations therein; if not from the blue bed to the brown, after the manner of the good Vicar, at least from the coziness of the sitting-room or study in winter to the breadth of the horizon, the outdoorness of the piazza (for "veranda" is an architect's word) in the summer afternoons. And the home feeling profits by the change. To the modern the lighted table has become the home focus, insensibly replacing the hearth, which once ranked with the altars that typified the nationality of worship. The Spectator hopes that he is as alive to the drama of his home life as to the greater dramatic incidents abroad. The cool breath of winter isolates and insulates home happenings, and through its gentle besiegement brings about an intimacy such as should exist among the defenders of a beleaguered castle. Within the walls the Spectator is forced to take stock of the provisions laid up against this time of enforced seclusion, none the less real that it is but comparative. He notes with inward satisfaction the serried rows of books that bring to his lips a smile at the thought of mental starvation. They seem to smile back in recognition, and with both a promise and a reminiscence. There is little need of lettering upon them—one might as well ask his dearest friends for their visiting-cards as really to read the titles of loved books. Each is, or should be, known at the first glance. Each should have its own accustomed place upon the shelves, among familiar neighbors, its own well-learned group.

And the members of a real family in a real home have places as closely fitted. There is the corner where the mother sits when the mending-basket reigns, the niche by the window where the youngest boy curls up when lost in Robinson Crusoe's cave; the music corner whence come the fairy visions evoked by the daughter's deft fingers. The Spectator has his own prescribed limits, which he would fain believe more favorable to his musings than any other cubic feet of space whatever. Not far away sits the family legislature, its wisest decrees often inspired by the dining-table around which the councilors gather at stated periods, varying eager debate by a pleasant attention to the fruits of the earth. Not all the sessions are legislative. The breakfast-table may lack an autocrat, but it should never be without its poets to feel and express the inspiration brought by the consciousness of a new day.

"East or west, hame's best," says the Scotch proverb, and the Spectator realizes that it is the exquisite mosaic of little happenings which make the home. The bright morning face of a happy wife, the keen spirit of a child's questioning, the sympathy of the family circle—these bring something beyond the glamour of foreign sights and sounds, yet are within the

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reach of so many. The Spectator cannot believe that even the most insistent materialist could analyze a home into its mere walls and roof, its furniture and fittings. So independent of these is the fine essence of home that there seems hardly one of them indispensable to it. A tent—even a lean-to of boughs—is enough; and the single piece of unrelated furnishing may be too much. Yet when the essential spirit truly reigns, it will subdue all to its own hue, making a harmony of things irreconcilable.

The Spectator rejoices that the land is full of homes; and often in railway journeys by night he has gazed upon the twinkling lights scattered here and there, thickly or thinly, through the darkened landscape, reflecting that each is a little household circle reunited at the closing of day. What a marvel is thus wrought daily at morning and at evening! The light brings a dissolving of the home units that they may form the great currents of human life—the workers in the factories, the moving throngs in the streets, the new crystallizations of office and business life, the creators of our civilization. Light fades into dark, and the atoms separate in an electrolysis of "home" sentiment, and the new groupings of the family are formed around their millions of centers.

But this is to wander afield again, and the Spectator wished to keep within his own circle. He wishes to speak of what comes under the eye of the home-keeper, to note the infinite riches in a little home, with its minor divisions adapted to books or work or healthful play, and even those outlying territories of attic, kitchen, and cellar which are tributary to the home kingdom. He is only too well aware that in many cases these are obsolescent or obsolete. The attic is in danger of becoming a mere tradition, no more real than Jack Frost or Tom Tiddler's ground. There is too much wisdom and economy in many modern homes. What is the small boy who feels himself a blighted being to do in the absence of a darksome, lonely attic? Where is he to mature his plans for piracy upon the high seas, or for a humble, footworn entry into some mythical city with the certainty of returning a merchant prince? Even cellars are not rightly gloomy nowadays, and kitchens are not worth the perils of a raid.

The Spectator knows that there is a touch of old-fogyism in these complaints; that the small boy of to-day can spin his own romances as the contemporary silkworm can spin its own cocoon. The motor car has to Young America as compelling a charm as the stage-coach to the Colonial lad, and the monoplane will build for itself a nest in the coming Jack's beanstalk. But our own ideals, our own meanings, remain for us in the familiar words; and the Spectator's definition of home has always included a raftered attic and a mysterious cellar. When some young Spectator has come to man's estate, he may make his own observations for his own contemporaries; the present Spectator speaks to the dwellers in old Attica, and feels sure of their sympathy.

While the home may be hospitable to novelties and ready to naturalize immigrant newcomers, whether animate or inanimate, the Spectator insists that there is a law requiring a period of residence and an acquirement of domicile. The alien chair or table must be ready to conform to the standard of living. It must not quarrel with the old settlers. Even the foreign colony idea, as exemplified in a "Turkish room" or a "Louis Seize" apartment, is, to the Spectator's mind, not compatible with the welfare of Homeland. At best, such must remain not truly native. He even doubts whether the Lares and Penates can approve of the Italian garden or other triumphs of the landscape artist. They are no more than decorative pictures, mere æsthetic additions which are in the home without being of it.

So, although the Spectator sometimes stays at home, he finds no need to regret the sights he may miss abroad. There are dramas within every four walls, and these, too, are worthy the watching, for in them the old verities are to be found.

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MR. ROOSEVELT IN EUROPE

STAFF CORRESPONDENCE OF THE OUTLOOK

WHEN the University of Christiania conferred upon Mr. Roosevelt the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy—a degree which had never been conferred before upon any person by the University—Professor Broch, Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy, likened Mr. Roosevelt to a railway engine whose course is concealed from the near-by spectator by a cloud of dust and smoke, but which, nevertheless, pursues its course with rapidity and power towards a definite goal, leaving behind it a straight and shining track. This semi-humorous analogy is not inappropriate to Mr. Roosevelt's journey through Europe. It is almost impossible for one who has been close to Mr. Roosevelt in this remarkable and unprecedented journey to appreciate its significance himself or to give any adequate idea to American readers of what it has meant to the people of Europe. If the reader will take a map and with a blue pencil trace the course of this journey, some faint notion may be obtained of what Mr. Roosevelt has done physically in his six weeks' tour between the dates of April 2, when he landed in Naples, and May 15, when he left Berlin for London. In miles alone the lineal distance which he has covered is prodigious—Naples to Rome, Rome to Genoa, Genoa to Porto Maurizio, Porto Maurizio back to Genoa, Genoa to Venice, Venice to Vienna, Vienna to Budapest, Budapest to Paris, Paris to Brussels, Brussels to The Hague, The Hague to Amsterdam, Amsterdam to Copenhagen, Copenhagen to Christiania, Christiania to Stockholm, and Stockholm to Berlin! When it is considered that in each of these chief stopping-places there were dinners, receptions, official festivities, private and personal calls, academic celebrations, and four great public addresses, besides an uncounted number of greetings from and extemporaneous speeches to people gathered at railway stations, in school-houses, and in the village streets, it is not surprising that it is difficult in the midst of it all to form an intelligent impression of the significance and importance of such a journey in their correct proportions.

The interesting incidents which happened in each place visited by Mr. Roosevelt deserve a chapter by themselves, which it is of course utterly impossible to give in newspaper correspondence, and even the daily despatches to American newspapers from the correspondents who have been traveling in company with Mr. Roosevelt, admirable as they are, must by their very nature give a detached and somewhat broken view of the whole journey. But, to return to Professor Broch's analogy, the journey, in spite of its speed, its crowds, its turmoil, and its shoutings, has directed the attention of vast numbers of people towards a definite goal, and has left behind it a shining track of friendship and inspiration.

In a previous letter I have said that the cumulative effect upon me of this extraordinary pilgrimage has been to give a very distinct impression that the people, the political leaders, and the governmental rulers of Europe recognize in Mr. Roosevelt a personification of the moral power of human nature—the power not merely to appreciate high ideals but to put them into practical effect in every-day life. In addition, Mr. Roosevelt possesses great charm and attractiveness of person and of manner. It is difficult to say this in cold type; in paying a compliment even to a woman the man of tact and social skill prefers to do it in the form of allusion rather than of direct statement; but to explain the essential features of what may be said without exaggeration to be one of the most remarkable journeys of history, it is necessary for the moment to abandon reserve and state the bald facts. It is a painful thing to have to admit that so many good people are uninteresting and so many interesting people are not good. Mr. Roosevelt is both thoroughly good and thoroughly interesting. In some respects his tour may be said to have been a missionary journey in behalf of political and social morality, and yet it has been full of the gayety and vivacity of

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life, and he has enjoyed its color, its movement, its social festivities, and its good living with as much appreciation as the *bon vivant*. The common people as well as many of the most distinguished personages of Europe have not merely shown admiration for his character but have found real fascination in his personality. People not merely want to see him out of curiosity, but when they have once seen him they want to be with him and talk to him. Everywhere the most striking proofs have been given that he possesses what is somewhat tritely called "personal magnetism" in a very marked degree. With these few words of personal characterization, which I venture to make only because something of the kind is necessary to interpret the events of the last month, I shall endeavor in this letter to touch upon those incidents which it seems to me corroborate and confirm the assertion that the tributes paid to Mr. Roosevelt have been tributes to the moral power of his personality and career.

The first important occurrence of this character was the controversy at Rome with the Vatican. American readers are familiar with the main features of this episode. It was of course not at all a question of religion or theology; what was involved was the elementary question of human rights—the assertion of the principle of liberty of conscience and ethical conduct as opposed to intolerance and bigotry. Some striking incidents followed the visit to Rome which show a recognition of the fact that Mr. Roosevelt was contending not for sectarian supremacy but for general religious liberty—liberty in the Catholic Church as well as among Protestants. At Vienna the Papal Nuncio at the Court of the Emperor Francis Joseph, which is perhaps one of the strictest ecclesiastical courts in Europe, called upon Mr. Roosevelt and had a long conversation with him; at Budapest three young American Catholic theologians had a personal interview with him by special arrangement; in Porto Maurizio Signor Fogazzaro, the eminent Italian writer and novelist, visited Mr. Roosevelt, making a long journey to do so, and it is interesting to note that Signor Fogazzaro, a devout Catholic himself, was at the time a guest of a distinguished bishop of the Roman Catholic Church; at Porto Maurizio two priests of the Franciscan Brotherhood, with full knowledge of the Vatican incident, made a special call to pay their respects; at Brussels, in which capital the proprieties and procedure of a Roman Catholic Court are as strictly observed as anywhere in Europe, some Catholic missionary fathers who had worked in the Philippines called upon Mr. Roosevelt, with the full approval of their ecclesiastical superior. Notwithstanding some of the attacks which have been made in America upon Mr. Roosevelt's attitude in the Vatican controversy, notably such bitter words as those spoken recently by Archbishop O'Connell of Boston, it is the friends and not the enemies of a truly spiritual religion who have ranged themselves on Mr. Roosevelt's side in Europe.

In Porto Maurizio, a small but ancient and most picturesque city near Genoa, both the popular and the official reception of Mr. Roosevelt was very remarkable in its recognition of his moral leadership. The city was placarded with posters issued by the municipal authorities in the Italian language in which a welcome was expressed to Mr. Roosevelt as "the promoter of international peace and the champion of human fraternity and solidarity." The people of the town, especially the working people and the peasants, bombarded his carriage, when he drove out, with flowers, so that the carriage was almost filled to overflowing. People leaned from the third-story windows of what in New York we should call tenement-houses to throw down their home-made floral tokens. One day when he drove out into the country I saw an old peasant woman standing by her cottage door eagerly waiting the approach of the carriage, and, when she tossed to him with a trembling hand a bunch of flowers, pinned to a large green leaf was a scrap of paper, and on it, written with painful effort, the words, "*Viva, viva, viva Roosevelt!*" This old woman never saw him before, will never see him again, and received in reply only a smile and a lift of the hat, and yet it was pathetically evident that she was eager to pay her slight tribute to the man who stood in her mind as "the champion of human fraternity."

The Austrians are proverbially a re-

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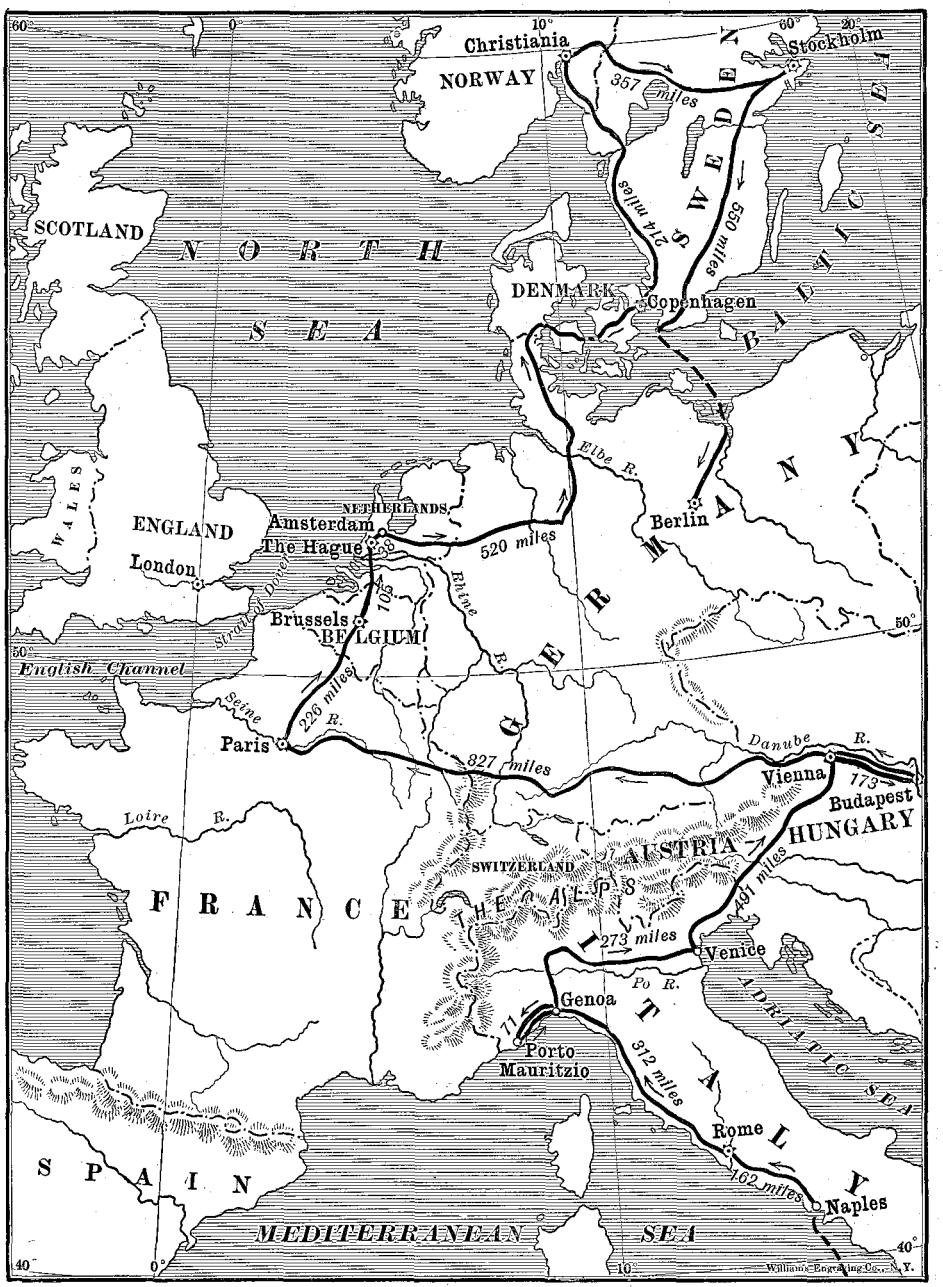

FROM NAPLES TO BERLIN

The route of Mr. Roosevelt's journey of about 4,560 miles, made between April 3 and May 10, 1910

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served people, and yet the demonstrations in Vienna, on the streets, were of so enthusiastic a nature as to surprise even the Austrians themselves. The head waiter of the hotel at which the Roosevelt party stopped said to me one day when a great crowd had gathered in the square in front of the hotel to see Mr. Roosevelt get into his carriage, "This is wonderful; I never saw anything like it before, and yet we have had many kings staying here." As Mr. Roosevelt drove off I heard one big, fine-looking Austrian exclaim to his friend, "*Der ist ein Mensch*"—There is a MAN. This phrase very happily sounds the keynote of greetings everywhere. In Budapest and other towns and villages of Hungary he received the same kind of greeting. Under the dome of the beautiful House of Parliament, Count Apponyi, one of the great political leaders of modern Hungary, made an address on behalf of the Hungarian delegates to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, in which he reviewed Mr. Roosevelt's achievements in behalf of human rights and liberty and international justice. Mr. Roosevelt's reply, although entirely extemporaneous, is a fair exemplification of the attitude which he has taken in all his speeches while on this side of the water. Briefly, he said, in referring to some allusions in Count Apponyi's address, that the principles for which he had endeavored to struggle during his political career were principles older than those of George Washington or Abraham Lincoln, older indeed than the principles of Arpád, the great historical Hungarian leader; they were the principles enunciated in the Decalogue and the Golden Rule. One of the fine things about these sermons by Mr. Roosevelt—I call them sermons because he himself frequently uses the phrase "I preach"—is that nobody speaks or even thinks the word "cant" in connection with them. They are accepted as the genuine and spontaneous expressions of a man who believes that the highest moral principles are quite compatible with all the best social joys of life and with dealing knock-out blows when it is necessary to fight to redress wrongs or to maintain justice. The people of Paris perhaps are as quick to detect and to laugh at cant or moral platitudes as anybody of the modern world, and yet Paris is still talking, two weeks after Mr. Roosevelt's departure, of the tonic qualities of his visit. I venture to quote from a private letter which I have received from a military officer living in Paris, who knows well its general habit of mind:

"I find that Paris is still everywhere talking of Mr. Roosevelt. It was a thing almost without precedent that this *blasé* city kept up its interest in him without abatement for eight days; but that a week after his departure should still find him the main topic of conversation is a fact which has undoubtedly entered into Paris history. The 'Temps' [one of the foremost daily newspapers of Paris] has had fifty-seven thousand copies of his Sorbonne address printed and distributed free to every school-teacher in France and to many other persons. The Socialist or revolutionary groups and press had made preparations for a monster demonstration on May 1. Walls were placarded with incendiary appeals and their press was full of calls to arms. Monsieur Briand [the Prime Minister] flatly refused to allow the demonstration, and gave orders accordingly to Monsieur Lépine [the Chief of Police]. For the first time since present influences have governed France, certainly in fifteen years, the police and the troops were authorized to *use thei, arms in self-defense.* The result of this firmness was that the leaders countermanded the demonstration, and there can be no doubt that many lives were saved and a new point gained in the possibility of governing Paris as a free city, yet one where order must be preserved, votes or no votes. Now this stiff attitude of M. Briand and the Conseil is freely attributed in intelligent quarters to Mr. Roosevelt. French people say it is a repercussion of his visit, of his Sorbonne lecture, and that going away he left in the minds of these people some of that intangible spirit of his—in other words, they felt what he would have felt in a similar emergency, and for the first time in their lives showed a disregard of voters when they were bent upon mischief. It is rather an extraordinary verdict, but it has seized the Parisian imagination, and I, for one, believe it is correct."

Some of the English newspapers, while generally approving of the Sorbonne ad-

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dress, expressed the feeling that it contained some platitudes. Of course it did. People have to be constantly reminded that the laws of social and moral health, like the laws of hygiene, are platitudes. It was interesting to have a French engineer and mathematician of distinguished achievements, who discussed with me the character and effect of the Sorbonne address, rather hotly denounce those who affected to regard Mr. Roosevelt's restatement of obvious but too often forgotten truths as "platitudinous." "Why," said this mathematician, "the finest and most beautiful things in life, the most abstruse scientific discoveries, are based upon platitudes. It is a platitude to say that the whole is greater than its part, or that the shortest distance between two points is a straight line, and yet it is upon such platitudes that astronomy, by means of which we have penetrated some of the far-off mysteries of the universe, is based. The greatest cathedrals are built of single blocks of stone, and a single block of stone is a platitude. Tear the architectural structure to pieces and you have nothing left but the single, common, platitudinous bricks; but for that reason do you say that your architectural edifice is platitudinous? The effect of Mr. Roosevelt's career and personality, which rest upon the secure foundation of simple and obvious truths, is like that of a fine architectural structure, and if a man can only see the single bricks or stones of which it is composed, so much the worse for him!"

One incident of the Paris visit I want to relate because it shows in a very delightful way Mr. Roosevelt's hold upon the ordinary man, upon those whom Lincoln called "the common people." One feature of the Parisian programme was the review of some French troops at Vincennes. Mr. Roosevelt went out to the field with the American Ambassador, Mr. Bacon, and the French Ambassador at Washington, M. Jusserand. The three were of course dressed in the conventional frock coat and high hat, but the general officer in command asked Mr. Roosevelt if he would not like to ride, and he quickly responded by mounting a horse with no opportunity of changing his costume except that which he could make when an orderly took off his own leggings and put them at Mr. Roosevelt's disposal. The review was a successful and picturesque one. Some days after, while in Holland, Mr. Roosevelt received from the enlisted men the following letter, which bore in the upper left-hand corner a picture of a horse of the French Cavalry:

Vincennes, le 27 Avril, 1910.

Monsieur le Président Roosevelt:

Nous sommes les cavaliers du 2e Escadron du 23e Dragons, et c'est le cheval Peppino de chez nous que vous avez monté pour la manœuvre d'aujourd'hui. Nous en avons été très fiers et l'escadron ne l'oublira jamais. Nous respecterons ce cheval avec fidélité. Nous nous permettons de vous écrire pour que vous le sachiez. Nous n'oublierons jamais non plus que nous vous avons vu.

Nous sommes vos cavaliers respectueux et dévoués,

Signé: LES CAVALIERS DU 2E ESCADRON, QUI AIMENT L'AMÉRIQUE.

I venture to translate the letter as follows:

Mr. President:[1]

We are the cavalymen of the 2d Squadron of the 23d Dragoons, and this is our horse Peppino which you rode to-day at the maneuvers. We were very proud of it, and the squadron will never forget it. We venture to write to you to assure you that we shall take care of this horse hereafter with faithful respect. Nor shall we ever forget that we have seen you.

We are, respectfully and devotedly,

THE CAVALRYMEN OF THE 2D SQUADRON, WHO ADMIRE AMERICA.

These soldiers, from the ranks, representing, as the phraseology of their letter shows, the modest homes of France, are not the less loyal to their own country because they have in so spontaneous and simple a fashion, with no personal ax to grind, expressed their appreciation of the human qualities which Mr. Roosevelt represents His own belief that a man may preserve a heartfelt loyalty to his native land and yet appreciate the good qualities of another nation was well stated in what he said in an address in Sweden commending the sterling qualities of Scandinavian-American citizens in the United States, who, he was glad to believe, preserved a devoted attachment to their fatherland: the man, said Mr. Roosevelt, who cherishes a devotion to his mother is thereby able to love his wife all the better.

[1] It is the custom in France to call ex-Presidents, as well as the President in office, "Mr. President"—a rather pleasant and appropriate custom, it seems to me.

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A letter of this kind is not long enough to give an account of the visits to Belgium, to Holland, to Denmark, to Norway, and to Sweden. In each of these countries Mr. Roosevelt was received with the most friendly courtesy and attention by the rulers and by the people themselves. In Brussels he and his family dined with the King and Queen, in Holland they lunched with the Queen and her Consort, in Denmark they were the guests of the Crown Prince, in Christiania they were the guests of the King and Queen at the Royal Palace, and in Stockholm the guests of the Crown Prince and the Crown Princess at the Castle. The three great Scandinavian cities were beautifully decorated, and the hospitality both of the citizens and of the royal families was of the most generous character. Special "saloon carriages" (private cars, as we call them) and dining-cars, and in some cases special trains, were placed at the disposal of Mr. Roosevelt, his family, and his party by the Government railways of France, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Germany; in the three Scandinavian Kingdoms, in addition to ambassadorial and royal dinners, splendid banquets were given in his honor by large bodies of citizens; and everywhere crowds of people lined the streets eager to catch a glimpse of him and to cheer him as he passed. This rather bald account of what was really a beautiful, generous, spontaneous, and in many respects unprecedented hospitality is excusable only on the ground that American readers ought to know what friendliness has been shown by the European peoples and governments to one who is regarded as the representative of the best type of Americanism. Those of us who had the pleasure of being near-at-hand spectators of these greetings have learned that warm-hearted friendliness and enthusiasm are not confined to races of southern blood; neither Italy nor France could have outdone the Viking cities of Scandinavia in either the public or private manifestations of interest in and approval of their distinguished guest.

To-morrow Mr. Roosevelt leaves the Continent of Europe for England. The week in Berlin has been an appropriate climax to his European journey. Of course everybody at home or abroad who takes any interest in present-day international politics has been looking forward to the meeting of the Kaiser and Mr. Roosevelt, and nobody has been disappointed—least of all, I think it may be said, either the Emperor or Mr. Roosevelt. On the day of his arrival Mr. Roosevelt lunched with the Emperor at the palace at Potsdam, and their personal conversation after lunch was so long and animated and they were both so mutually interested and so oblivious to the passage of time that the party of invited guests who had come out to Potsdam from Berlin nearly lost the special train that had been provided for their return, since no one could leave, not even when the officers and gentlemen of the Court were anxiously consulting their watches, until the Emperor indicated that he was willing to part from his guest. The following day the two men, whom an American diplomatist of international reputation, in describing the meeting, very aptly called the greatest living sovereign and the greatest living private citizen, spent five hours together on horseback reviewing some remarkable field maneuvers of German troops. The Emperor was dressed in the uniform of a general of his army, Mr. Roosevelt in a simple riding suit of khaki and a black slouch hat. As they sat side by side in the saddle responding together to the salutes of the officers and troops who passed by in review, the only difference in their station being indicated by the fact that the Emperor was dressed in uniform while Mr. Roosevelt wore the dress in which he would ride across country at home and by the manner of their salutes, the Emperor as commander-in-chief touching his visor, Mr. Roosevelt as private citizen raising his hat, the scene must have been a dramatic one, and will be, it is not too much to say, one of historic interest. It was on this occasion that the Emperor, with his body-guard of officers in brilliant uniform gathered about him, raised his helmet and, turning to Mr. Roosevelt, said, "Roosevelt, my friend, I wish to welcome you in the presence of my guards; I ask you to remember that you are the only private citizen who ever reviewed the troops of Germany." Only those who are familiar with the strict military pro-

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cedure of the German Empire and who understand the feeling of sincere and heartfelt sentiment which lies behind the German words "*mein Freund*" can appreciate the deep and significant impression which the Emperor's words and action on this official military occasion have made in Berlin.

To this official acknowledgment of his confidence in "the Colonel of the Rough Riders" the Emperor has added many marks of intimate personal regard. He attended Mr. Roosevelt's lecture at the University of Berlin, a brilliant and picturesque academic celebration (not the least interesting feature of which was the singing by a finely trained student chorus of "Hail Columbia" and "The Star-Spangled Banner," harmonized as only the Germans can harmonize choral music), and those who sat near him could see that he followed the address with absorbed interest, nodding his head or smiling now and again with approval at some incisively expressed idea or some phrase of interjected humor or a characteristic gesture or striking bit of oratory on the part of the speaker.

All this has interested me, and, if I know Mr. Roosevelt, has interested him, not because the Kaiser is the head of a splendid European Court, but because he is a man of great force and probity of character, who is the dominant figure in European politics, and who possesses a charm, a magnetism, a friendliness, and a peacefulness of personality which are not appreciated by those whose idea of him is based only upon military portraits and political articles in the newspapers. I confess that this element of kindliness and human sympathy in the German Emperor's face and personality was a surprise to me, and I wish it might be better known and understood in America.

And so I conclude where I began. The tribute to Mr. Roosevelt in Berlin, sometimes supposed to be the center of modern militarism and the iron-heel policy of government, has been, as it was in the little city of Porto Maurizio, a tribute to the power of moral ideas—a tribute not to a mere individual, but to a personality that somehow seems to represent, in a concrete form easily understood and appreciated by all sorts and conditions of people, the ability of man to achieve, if he will, justice, efficacious and virile peace, and the solidarity and fraternity of the human race. No one can have been a spectator of the events of Mr. Roosevelt's journey without feeling that the noble qualities of human nature far outweigh the petty and vicious ones in their influence on modern civilization.

LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT.

Berlin, May 14, 1910.

VICTORY

BY HERBERT MÜLLER HOPKINS

It is not life's brief tenure that I moan,
Its many tears, its vanishing delights,
Nor all the bitterness my heart hath known
In the grim silences of wakeful nights.

Nor doth my spirit in the battle quail,
Dreaming of pleasure and inglorious ease;
My arm would answer mighty flail with flail,
And try results with mortal destinies.

But this my prayer, and this my one request:
That when my wrestle with the foe is done,
It be not said of me, "He did his best,"—
Not that alone, but let them add, "He won."

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THE RIGHT WAY TO TEACH ZOÖLOGY

BY WILLIAM T. HORNADAY[1]

AUTHOR OF "THE AMERICAN NATURAL HISTORY"

WHEN Professor Louis Agassiz first set up in America the research idea, and turned every pupil of zoölogy into an original laboratory "investigator," he little dreamed that he was creating a serious handicap for the practical teachers of zoölogy of the present day; but that is precisely what he did.

When Charles Darwin published the "Origin of Species," and for the first time focused public attention on the theory of the evolutionary development of all animal life, he little dreamed that he was furnishing the raw materials from which there would be set up at this time a fetish idol that would stand like a wall of adamant between the boys and girls of to-day and the animal world that they desire to know.

The present status of the teaching of natural history to the millions serves at least one good purpose. It shows how the greatest truth may become harmful to humanity when the worship of it becomes blindly intemperate.

Through mistaken ideals and faulty methods, the young people of America between the ages of twelve and twenty years are to-day being deprived of a great store of useful zoölogical knowledge which by right is theirs, and which they should have. It is quite time for some one to protest against the conditions that render it well-nigh impossible for a student to find in America a school in which he can take a course that will give him a good *general* knowledge of the most interesting animal forms of his own country.

The complaints on which this protest is based have come to me from serious-minded students who have found great difficulty in fitting themselves for work as "all-round" zoölogists. On this subject I have talked with many students, and also many teachers, representing all kinds of schools from the high school to the university, and I have found certain conditions that so extensively prevail that they may well-nigh be called universal. The following conditions relate to the collegiate training of teachers:

So far as I can ascertain, in nearly every university and high-class college "research" is the bane of the professors' activity; and its natural corollary, "investigation," is the Slough of Despond of the general student. The result is "specialization" on the part of the student, and the turning out of a graduate who is specially unfit for teaching what the youth of America desire and need to know about animal life. What does a trained embryologist care about the habits of the burrowing rodents of the United States? or of the food of hawks and owls? or the best way to breed foxes in captivity? or the breeding and feeding habits of food fishes?

It is now a law, both written and unwritten, that in normal schools, high schools, and academies generally, every teacher of biology, or any branch thereof, must be a college graduate, with a degree and a diploma. This means that the teacher has come down from the high level of "specialization" and "research" of a college or university, wherein the serious teaching of the common facts of zoölogy is regarded as unnecessary. The teacher comes down full of the doctrine of evolution, which he has learned both by precept and by example. To ignore the lamp of evolution is to walk in darkness, far below the level of the elect; and therefore the biology teacher *must* lay out his courses as an evolutionist. He must begin with the cell, and struggle upward toward humanity; and there is where the unfortunate pupil begins to feel the weight of the burden of too much "evolution."

Nearly every normal child is born with a natural and instinctive interest in animals; but it is not every youth who is born with a fondness for the serious study of them. Unfortunately, to the student there is no royal road to a good *general* knowledge of zoölogy; and it is not right to demand that the teacher shall do all

[1] The author offers this article solely on his own private account, as an individual, and for it no one else is in any way responsible.

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the work. In thousands of secondary schools in America I believe that strong efforts are being made to have the real work done by the teachers; but in the end it will be found that no method has yet been devised by which useful knowledge can be placed automatically in the empty recesses of lazy minds. And why should we be deeply solicitous regarding the pupils who are too indolent to dig?

On the other hand, it is unfair to discourage or handicap an inquiring mind. The young person who really wishes "to know about animals," and is willing to work for that knowledge, certainly deserves what the world calls a fair show. Beyond all room for argument, to start pupils in zoölogy with a great mass of obscure, uninteresting, and useless forms of life, and keep them there for wearisome weeks and months, is not giving those pupils a square deal. And that is precisely what is being done almost universally to-day throughout America by the teachers of zoölogy. If there are any exceptions to this rule, I will be most pleased to hear of them.

Whenever I protest against this state of things to any of the teachers themselves, usually they smile indulgently and politely change the subject. They think that I am old-fashioned, and "behind the times."

In the matter of teaching, be it known that this is the day *par excellence* for the universal abhorrence of "old methods." Every "old method" is automatically discredited. It is for this reason that our schools turn out so many pupils who spell atrociously, and who read and write even worse than they spell. It is the fault of the new and "modern" methods. To-day, for example, geography is studied by a system of elaborate strategy, beginning with the wonderful streets and factories and brooks of the pupil's own town, rather than with the great round earth and its continents. This is the day in which the old-fashioned text-book with questions to be asked and answers to be memorized by hard work is regarded with what Private Mulvaney would call "outrageous contempt." Instead of it, the high school girl carries in her arms an elaborate collection of small special "readers" from which it is supposed to be possible to extract the pieces of knowledge which, when correctly matched together, yield education.

In zoölogy the matter of systematic classification is regarded as a trifle light as air in comparison with anatomy. Why do I say this? Because all biology pupils come out of school knowing so very little of it. Before me is a long row of text-books on zoölogy and nature study. Each of these small volumes strives to set forth the anatomy of animals without adequately introducing the animals themselves. Classification, which is the bed-rock foundation of all perfect zoölogical knowledge, is treated as if it were a necessary evil. In each one of these modern text-books the least interesting animal forms are given first place, and those that are most interesting and important receive the last and the least attention.

I believe that among the boys and girls of America the desire to know as much as possible about wild animal life is very general. Every child is born with a love for animals quite as instinctive as its love for toys. Foster that desire, at the proper times and in proper ways, and we will have millions of genuine naturalists, each one deriving both pleasure and profit from the contemplation of wild life. But it is only one out of every ten thousand who can become a successful "investigator" and "specialist" in a college or university. The other 9,999 have time in their school days only barely sufficient to learn which are the most important, the most useful, or the most injurious animal forms, and why. They have no time to waste on the anatomy of the grasshopper or the paramecium, when in a few short weeks the chance to learn in school the outlines of animal classification and some real animal lore will be gone forever. The pupil desires and needs to be taught about the birds of use and beauty, the big animals that are being so rapidly exterminated, the injurious rodents, the rattlesnakes and moccasins, the festive alligator, the turtles, and the once cheap food fishes whose flesh is becoming dearer every minute.

There is a vast field of practical zoölogy that in the schools of America (speaking generally) to-day lies as fallow and uncultivated as the tundras of the arctic Barren Grounds. I believe that, with but few

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exceptions, even in our universities, it is sadly neglected. And in the normal schools of America, where the majority of our teachers are trained, what do we find? Let us see.

By way of illustration, let us imagine a group of young people from Mars landing upon this earth, drifting into a normal school, and saying to the teacher of zoölogy:

"Is there any wild animal life on this continent of yours?"

"Oh, yes," the teacher would reply; "we have a marvelously rich fauna—thousands of species, and millions of individuals, great and small."

"Well, we would like to know about them—all that we can possibly learn in a few weeks." ("Weeks" is the word that best represents the total time that the average pupil spends in school on zoölogy.) "We want to know the creatures that are most worth knowing, so that we can take back to Mars a good general knowledge of your wild life."

Says the teacher, joyously:

"Oh, yes. Certainly. Let us go out into this vacant lot. . . . Ah, here is the *very thing* to begin with. *A grasshopper!*"

(Several of our modern text-books on zoölogy really do begin with the grasshopper; and so do very many school courses.)

Then follows a long disquisition on the *anatomy* of that wonderful insect. Its component parts are expounded in minute detail—trochanter, femur, abdomen, and thorax—and the pupils from Mars patiently try to learn it all. They draw it, and redraw it, and tre-draw it, two days a week, for four mortal weeks!

Then comes the butterfly, in the same way. Great is the butterfly; and the shape of its antennæ and the scalation of its wings are highly important. Three weeks flit by on the gilded wings of the butterfly.

Then for a week or two comes the beetle; and in dazzling sequence the crayfish, the amœba, and the paramecium, until on those four or five forms of life, utterly unimportant in comparison with thousands of others, two or three precious months have been spent! In that period, and by the same amount of effort, those pupils could have become permanently acquainted with at least fifty useful and interesting birds or mammals of North America—acquired as friends for a lifetime.

And what will the harvest be? At the end of a year of such work will the young people from Mars have even the beginning of a general view of our continent's most interesting, most valuable, or most harmful wild creatures? I put the question squarely to the boards of education of all America.

Now, the above hypothetical case is no nightmare of the imagination. It shows in a general way exactly what the boys and girls of America have to meet when they honestly strive, in a high school, normal school, academy, or small college, to gain a practical knowledge of the most interesting and most useful living forms of their own country.

Four months of such dreary work as I have described is enough to discourage almost any pupil, and rob him of all desire to go on in zoölogy. And yet, by beginning with the *highest and most interesting* of the vertebrates, and studying *only those that are worth knowing*, the interest of the pupil can be aroused and prolonged to infinity; and the study of zoölogy thereby becomes as musical as Apollo's lute.

I conceive it to be my bounden duty to place before the boards of education and the parents of America this deliberate statement of the losses that their children annually sustain through the mistaken ideals of the men who are responsible for the existing courses of study in zoölogy. This is a story of world's work that is not being done! Our young people come out of school and enter active life ignorant of the animal lore that they need to know, and would have learned with delight had they been given the opportunity. I have neither time nor inclination to hunt for euphemistic phrases or to gently insinuate things that need to be stated as plain facts.

The amount of general knowledge regarding American wild life that countless thousands of Americans *need to know*—as a business proposition—is really great. By way of illustration, here are a few items:

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The birds that are useful to man and deserving protection; the birds that men and women are ruthlessly exterminating in ways that constitute crimes against nature; the mammals that are of most value, and those that are of the greatest interest, to mankind; the mammals that are most destructive to man's possessions, and which need to be destroyed; the fishes that need perpetuation and propagation as a cheap food supply for the poor; the conservation of marine life generally; the reptiles that are deadly, and those that are harmless; the reptiles that are useful to man; the insects that are injurious, and how to cope with them; the crustaceans and mollusks that can be cultivated and perpetuated by intelligent effort.

These few items relate to the utilitarian or commercial side of life, but of themselves alone they are sufficient to demand a complete revolution in the methods of teaching zoölogical subjects. So far as I am aware, nowhere in the whole United States is there a school, a college, or a university wherein pupils can enter classes and in a regular course gain a comprehensive knowledge of such subjects as those mentioned above; and I say this after having examined the courses of study in many different institutions, from the higher universities down to the high schools.

It is quite true that in several universities and colleges it is possible for a student, with the aid of a friendly professor, to "specialize" on any one of those subjects; but we are not discussing specialization for the select few. We are speaking of the needs of the masses—of whole classes, not of individual students who are specially coached in a corner. My claim is that the millions need something that they are not getting, which under present conditions they are unable to get, but which they should have. If any man or woman in America will come forward and disprove the truth of what I am now saying, I will be delighted with an excuse to apologize and retract.

But there is another consideration quite as high as the utilitarian side of zoölogical knowledge; and that is, the duty of every intelligent American to obtain a good general knowledge of the most interesting animal species of his own continent, because of the immense amount of pleasure to be derived by him through that knowledge. By rational methods, it would be not only possible but comparatively easy for every high school, normal school, college, and university boy and girl to know personally one hundred American mammals, one hundred and fifty birds, fifty reptiles, fifty fishes, one hundred insects, and at least twenty-five invertebrates, such as lobsters, crabs, and shellfishes. That amount of zoölogical knowledge is none too great for every fairly well educated American to possess and use throughout life. Any one so equipped is well informed about "animals," and is able to speak and act intelligently on hundreds of occasions when zoölogical knowledge becomes of practical value and necessity. But it is *not* to be gained wholly by object-lesson work, or by "investigation." Much of it must first be learned from a good illustrated text-book, just as a pupil learns of the continents, mountains, and rivers that he never hopes to see.

Ask yourselves now, you who read this, how many of our college and university graduates are acquainted with fifty species of wild creatures, all told, to the extent of knowing a dozen facts regarding the life history of each? I think there are very few who know even half that number.

Now we come down to a more serious matter. How many *teachers* are there in our secondary schools, and even including the normal and the high schools, who are acquainted with three hundred vertebrates, and can teach pupils what they should be taught of them? Who will venture to guess that in the whole State of New York there are more than twenty?

In the Zoölogical Park we have heard many queer things put forth as information regarding our animals. For example:

Eight years ago we liberated a lively young orang-utan in a small tree, to see whether the instinctive nest-building habit of that species would produce in captivity a practical result. In ten minutes' time the animal industriously broke branches, piled them into a crotch, and completed a typical nest. We were so pleased with the result that immediately we placed a large label below it, that all visitors might understand.

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Up to this label a teacher presently led her class of twenty girls of from twelve to fifteen years, and to them she read the label aloud, beginning thus:

"NEST OF AN OR'ANGE OO'-TAN." (We had it "Orang-Utan.") "This nest was constructed in about ten minutes," etc.

From the gathering of girls a voice arose:

"What *is* an 'or'ange oo'tan,' Miss Teacher?"

"An or'ange oo'tan, my dear," answered the teacher, "is a large tropical bird with a very large beak, that lives upon fruit."

"Why," said a small voice from the outer row, "*I* thought it was a kind of *monkey!*"

"Oh, no, my dear. It is a large bird from South America."

As the result of a lack of proper training for our teachers, and of wholly inadequate instruction, our children are coming out of the secondary schools, high schools, colleges, and universities lamentably lacking the systematic knowledge of our finest wild species that they ought to possess. Let him who doubts this choose a few graduates at random, and ask each one about twenty leading questions concerning important wild species of vertebrates.

In 1906 Professor M. A. Bigelow, the very level-headed editor of the "Nature Study Review," published these words:

> The obvious tendency to turn the teacher loose with books on natural history, and with few guiding principles, is probably the reason why, on the whole, nature study is still so disorganized, and so far from being firmly established in our school system.

Taking that sentence as my text, I wrote a communication to the editor, entitled "The Weaknesses in Teaching Nature Study," in which I earnestly endeavored to point out the reasons for the acknowledged conditions. In spite of plain language, my letter was published as it was written; and I am certain that no effort in behalf of an educational betterment ever was more futile. President Hadley, of Yale, and Dr. C. E. Bessey, of the University of Nebraska, wrote letters cordially supporting my views. Dr. Eliot, of Harvard—the birthplace of the "investigation" idea—held that the object sought never could be attained "by memorizing facts out of a book;" but he admitted that "if the object were merely to acquire information," the "text-book method would doubtless be quicker than that of getting acquainted with life about our homes."

My contention is that to-day the need of the rising generations of Americans *is* first of all "to acquire information" about the wild life of our world that is worth knowing; and that *they do not need to be trained as laboratory investigators, at the expense of practical knowledge in zoölogy.* Of what value is the anatomy of the grasshopper in comparison with the same number of facts regarding the ten largest species of North American quadrupeds?

To-day, in our grammar schools, children that are entirely too young to enter upon serious studies of animals are being taught the baby-talk of "nature" in a fashion so chaotic that it would be amusing were it not so serious. The "nature study" teacher talks to babes and sucklings about flowers, insects, cows, weeds, frogs, horses, trees, cats and dogs, warm clothing, bread, and sparrows. If there were space to give here some of the popular hop-scotch "courses" in nature study, they surely would be regarded as educational curiosities.

In this connection there comes to mind the occasion wherein Professor Bigelow invited nature study teachers generally to send him, for publication in the "Nature Study Review," a list of the ten best books most in use in their school work. Twenty-two teachers responded, and their lists formed such a droll medley of things relevant and irrelevant, useful and useless, that they completely astounded the editor. Professor Bigelow's observations on the lists of "Ten Best Books for Nature Study" were exceedingly apt, and also highly amusing. His remarks are important, as an index to a serious situation. He said in part:

"The lists are absolutely astounding. That so many accomplished workers should so totally ignore the classics among nature study books seems almost incredible. Suppose that the editor should call for a description of 'the best sources of drinking water for our large cities.' I am prepared by the book lists just published to feel no surprise if you mention

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sprinkling-carts, rain-water hogsheads, fiber pails, soda fountains, bar-rooms, tin dippers, and pocket drinking-cups—to the entire omission of clouds, brooks, reservoirs, lakes, and ponds.

"I find no fault with the convenient little handbooks that the lists recommend, but to call them masterpieces of the world's literature in nature study, and put them among the 'best ten' is deplorable. It is worse. It is an outrage on the reader's intelligence. It is all right to collect straws if the straws are good and are needed; but to call straws the best things in life is misleading, and a misdirecting and wasting of well-intentioned efforts." ("Nature Study Review," September, 1906, pp. 212, 213.)

The lists published were from teachers scattered all the way from New York to California; and they were truly a startling exhibit of the unsystematic ideas of the great mass of nature teachers of the present hour.

The teachers of to-day in our secondary schools teach wrongly *because they themselves have been wrongly taught.* Even an educational stream cannot rise higher than its source. We cannot reasonably expect that the reform—nay, the complete revolution—that now is necessary can be wrought by the teachers themselves. While it is true that in many ways they can do much if they will, the situation—for I cannot call it system—has the American boy and girl by the throat, in a vise-like grasp. When fine, bright boys who have gone through high school and spent their first year at college come to me in vacation time and say, "*Please* tell me where and how I can get a good general knowledge of zoölogy, so that I can become an all-around naturalist," it is time to speak out once more.

The boys from college all say, "As soon as I entered they put me to specializing, and there is nothing else to do. It's all anatomy, and embryology, and mountains of work on things of mighty little importance. What do I care about the exact number of scales on a fish from Central Africa, or the nervous system of the parasites of a mud-puppy from South America?"

In the high schools the plan is not quite so bad as an all-specialty course, for in New York the two years' course does carry the pupil through the animal kingdom—if he can persevere to the end. But what are we to think of half a term of "biology" devoted to four weeks on the grasshopper, two weeks on the butterfly, three weeks on the crayfish, and about five weeks on the amœba and paramecium? What can such a course leave for the higher vertebrates? Nothing but touch and go!

At the end of that awful fourteen weeks two very bright girls whom I know, who originally were quite determined "to know something about animals," rose in open rebellion. They said to the teacher: "What is the use of all this? Why should we write twelve paragraphs on the mouth parts of a crayfish when we want to know something about the birds and animals and reptiles of North America?"

I said, "But will you not learn what you desire later on in the course—next year, perhaps?"

"No, we will not. Nearly all the time will be spent on things that we *never* will care anything about; and there will be so *little* about birds and animals that we won't learn hardly anything about them. We're just going to give up this stupid old biology and take some other study that will be of some use to us." And that is what they really did, forthwith.

I know one other bright girl with a real fondness for natural history, who spent four years in a famous academy for girls, and who in all that time progressed upward only as high as the lobster; and then she graduated. She happens to be my own daughter.

Second among the causes of loss through the present methods of teaching zoölogy in America stands the absence of text-books that are thoroughly helpful to teacher and to pupil, and of permanent value for reference. The idea that the teacher should have before him an omnium-gatherum of fifteen or twenty volumes on natural history subjects, and from them *deliver lectures* to his pupils, is, for all save special students, entirely wrong. Only the heaven-born professorial genius can make up, "out of his own head," good text-book materials as he goes along. The old idea that the text-book

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should contain the things that the pupil needs to learn and remember is absolutely right, and always will be right. There are teachers who maintain that it "is impossible for pupils to learn about animals from pictures;" but that idea is both absurd and mischievous. As well might a teacher say that a pupil cannot learn the shape of Africa from a map.

The way to give any pupil a general knowledge of the animal life of the world is to show good pictures of the objects that cannot be seen, and make the pupil learn *from his own book* (not from a book owned by a much-too-paternal State) the names of the animals, and the simple English words that stand for their classification. The modern idea that the teacher must do all the work is outrageously wrong and mischievous. Any pupil who will not dig out his lessons from a good text-book, with reasonable aid from the teacher, should be taken out of school and put to work.

Owing to the faulty principles that have become firmly rooted in the teaching of biology in secondary schools, all the elementary text-books on zoölogy and nature study have been very wrongly constructed. Before me at this moment there stands a row of such volumes; and I have carefully inspected each one. They naturally fall into three groups, as follows:

1. Those in which anatomy prevails over all other considerations.

2. Those which are dominated by the philosophic idea, and deal out learned discourses.

3. Those which jump all over the face of nature, first in one field and then in another, as children play hop-scotch.

All of those that teach zoölogy systematically begin with the lowest, or the lower, forms of life—the least interesting to man and beast. Some of them use the English sparrow as the greatest living exponent of the bird world, *and mention no other species!* Some consider the rabbit as alone sufficient to represent the mammals of the world. Several are well calculated to show the scientific attainments of their authors, but are strangely out of tune with the practical needs of American boys and girls.

Not one of the many American zoölogical text-books which I have examined during the past twenty years begins the subject with the higher vertebrates and works down to the lower forms of life. And how can a ship that persistently sails stern foremost ever get far from its home port? But that is precisely the way in which our biology teachers are to-day piloting the good ship Zoölogy through the schools of America.

The zoölogical text-books of to-day have been shaped to conform with certain theories, and not to meet the real demands of the hour. They are wrongly constructed, because they have been designed to meet a topsy-turvy situation. There are at least twenty men and women who can write good zoölogical text-books, on correct lines, whenever the schools of America will use them.

Now, does any one ask—or care—how the unsatisfactory zoölogical situation can be thoroughly reformed and bettered? I think that any one of my college lads could point out the way. But these are my recommendations:

1. Some university of commanding influence, like Yale or Columbia or Cornell, and some university president like President Hadley or President Butler, should elect to lead a reform, and begin by establishing a chair of Practical Zoölogy—first, for the purpose of setting a new pace, and, secondly, to furnish that which is not now obtainable, a general course in practical, common-sense zoölogy, such as thousands of teachers and millions of other men and women need for daily use. This course should show how biology teachers should be taught!

2. At least a dozen other universities and colleges should do the same thing.

3. All boards of education should recognize their responsibilities in this matter, and not permit the present illogical situation to endure. A completely reformed and rational system could be inaugurated within two years' time; and the way to do it is to order that it be done!

4. The "object-lesson" fetish-worship should resolutely be broken up, and the basic idea of it should be set up on a rational foundation. For any teacher to hold that a pupil can learn about the animal kingdom only by holding actual specimens in his hand, or by viewing their dis-

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membered remains, is ridiculous. Sensible parents know—even if there are some teachers who do not—that a normal child who can learn of continents, seas, lakes, and rivers from maps, and retain the knowledge throughout life, can also learn of the gorilla, the moose, the musk-ox, the vulture, the eagle, and the alligator from an illustrated text-book.

I do not mean for one moment to oppose the *principle* of object-teaching; but I do oppose every *reductio-ad-absurdum* application of it. Let us have it, by all means, in museum and menagerie and zoölogical park, whenever and wherever it is possible; but, for the love of nature, do not confine to the chipmunks, the sparrows, and the frogs around the schoolhouse the lessons on the great animal kingdom that are desired by the millions upon millions of school pupils who have no access to museums and menageries. Such a short-sighted policy as that—and I think it prevails to-day throughout nearly the whole United States—is a great wrong to the boys and girls of America.

It is a great mistake, and a waste of valuable effort, to begin nature-teaching with children that are too young to receive it except in the form of child prattle. For such pupils it would be far wiser and better to confine them to spelling, reading, composition, arithmetic, and geography until they are twelve years of age. By that time they will be ready to study nature systematically, and consume with avidity. The teaching of little children about cows, horses, dogs, and cats is a sinful waste of valuable time. Let them alone, and they will soon learn of domestic animals without ever having them made a solemn class-room affair.

In conclusion, what is going to be done about all this?

I am sure that the working teachers and professors of our normal and high schools will do nothing until they receive positive orders and assistance from those higher up. I have tried to set forth the facts as I know them to be, with a faint hope that somewhere a Moses will be found to lead our boys and girls out of the zoölogical darkness and bondage that now encompasses and enthralls them.

Will the great universities do nothing?

Will the boards of education do nothing?

Do the fathers and mothers of our boys and girls care anything about the matter?

In the fullness of time a reform may be wrought; but I greatly fear that by the time it arrives "in our midst" the most interesting of the world's wild life will have been ground to dust under the iron-shod heel of Modern Civilization.

THE PRAYERFUL LIFE

BY FREDERIC E. SNOW

He lived his simple life, nor thought of self;
He ministered unceasingly to all
Who needed him; he craved not gain nor pelf
Save as they helped to answer every call.

He smoothed a mother's pathway through the years;
He gave ungrudging to his brothers' need;
He spared not sympathy with others' tears,
Nor asked reward nor praises as his meed.

He lived in generous acts and kindly deeds,
In fellowship with sorrow and with grief;
And if perchance he ever thought of creeds,
He breathed his own in pithy terms and brief.

He made no show of faith, and if he prayed,
None ever knew. Was not his life a prayer?
And though he left his orisons unsaid,
They rose to Heaven and were recorded there.

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AN AMERICAN HERO

BY EDWARD VERRALL LUCAS

Mr. Lucas first asked, "Who was William Allen Richardson?" in a talk about the names of roses—new names and old, apt names and odd ones, beautiful and ugly names—in one of the sketches and essays in his little book called "One Day and Another." A rose, he held, should have a name as beautiful and immortal as itself. Particularly the William Allen Richardson rose seems to haunt him, for, at the beginning, middle, and end of the talk, he insistently asks the question of its origin and calls for a "Roses' Who's Who" to answer such conundrums. He asks, "Was he a florist, or an American Senator, or merely a rose-growing gentleman? The name has an Irish smack; at least the only Allens and the only Richardsons I ever knew personally were alike Irish. Is he alive to-day? He might easily be, for the rose bearing his name dates only from 1878—thirty-one years ago. If William Allen Richardson were then, say, forty, he would still be only seventy. How odd to meet him in real life! 'Allow me to introduce you to Mr. William Allen Richardson.' 'Not *the* William Allen Richardson?' you would reply in an awed whisper." At last Mr. Lucas has solved his rose-problem, and just how he tells below.—THE EDITORS.

WHO was William Allen Richardson? Since the publication of the volume of essays in which I so tiresomely propounded this problem many letters have reached me, each with its own solution. All are different; and their differences show how important it was that a warrior for truth should come forward and fling the question in the world's face. For the growth of legend and myth that has been endangering the fame of the noblest deviser of an orange-hearted rose was becoming too rampant. Let me, therefore, who asked the question, now answer it; for I know. By dint of careful pruning I have removed the apocryphal, and the truth remains. William Allen Richardson was— But you must permit me first to narrate some of the experiences of an essayist who indulges in interrogation marks.

The first letter I received—almost immediately after the publication of the book—gave so lucid an account of William Allen Richardson that I began to think I had made too much of the mystery. "Do you really want to know about William Allen Richardson?" it began; and then this story was told: "William Allen Richardson and his wife loved roses, and the ambition of their lives was to raise an orange-colored rose. At last they succeeded, and they called the treasure 'William and Ellen Richardson,' a rather cumbersome title, but meaning much to these two. Alas, the printer would have none of this sentiment—hence 'William Allen Richardson.'"

I cannot say that this narrative satisfied me; but there was nothing in it to make one violently skeptical. Why should not William and Ellen have lived this idyllic rose-growing life? Why should not their names have been thus intertwined forever, even if a little ungallantly? I had seen barges on the Thames called "William and Ellen," I was sure; why not roses? I therefore went about saying that I now knew the whole history of William Allen Richardson, and the story was not doubted.

But then arrived an anonymous post-card with the Paddington postmark: "I am of no importance and my brother is of no importance, but William Allen Richardson was the brother of my brother's handy man. (At least he said so)." What of William and Ellen after that? For the time, at any rate, the narrative of their fragrant union passed from my repertoire.

That post-card will give you an idea of the lightness with which this matter can be approached. I do not mean that the communication in itself is frivolous, for, though easy in tone, it yet states the case briefly and clearly; the lightness that I complain of is in the attitude of the writer's brother towards this tremendous problem. Here he was, with a handy man claiming to be the own brother of the great William Allen Richardson, and yet doing no more (apparently) than treating

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it as a myth—never investigating—never, in short, really caring. Now if I had a handy man whose brother was— But this is boasting, self-approval; and complacent people, conscious of their own rectitude, rarely get at the truth.

Other correspondents followed, all strangers to me, and each with a pet theory. One had it that William Allen Richardson had been gardener to a rose-loving duke. Another, that he was a Scotchman who had gone to France to manage the Ducher nursery. Another, that he was the American editor of a horticultural journal. Then came another more circumstantial story, from a lady in Yorkshire. "I was taught by a dear old country vicar (himself an enthusiastic rose-grower and close friend of Dean Hole) that W. A. Richardson was one of the Quaker firm of Richardson, who had a place near Newry in the north of Ireland." This so chimed in with my own Quakerish suspicions, as expressed in the original essay, that I was inclined to think we might really be at home at last; but meanwhile an American missive was on its way from Louisville, Kentucky, and when it arrived I saw at once that here was Veritas, naked and unashamed.

A certain illustrious statesman who had taken much interest in the matter will be amused to read the Louisville communication. "I have often," he wrote to me, "wondered, and occasionally asked, who W. A. R. was, and have been at times impatient that people should be content to live on without knowing. Now I would almost rather not know, having been disappointed for so long." He went on to say that he suspected W. A. R. to be an American. Well, he was right. Sagacious and far-seeing as ever, he now has another opportunity of pointing to a fulfilled conjecture; for there is no doubt (since I have had corroboration from another transatlantic source) that the following letter is gospel.

The writer, Mr. W. R. Belknap, roundly states himself to be William Allen Richardson's nephew. He continues: "William Allen Richardson was born in New Orleans, Louisiana, on February 20, 1819. When he was but two years old, his father moved to Lexington, Kentucky, where he resided until his death, in October, 1892. William Allen Richardson married Miss Mary Short, daughter of Charles Wilkins Short, the botanist, who pursued his favorite studies of botany and horticulture at his country place, Hayfield, some five miles southwest of Louisville. With this congenial companionship, Mr. W. A. Richardson established himself in an adjoining place, Ivywood, and became much interested in the cultivation and propagation of roses. He imported a good many, and in this way became acquainted by correspondence with Madame Ducher (or she may have been called Veuve Ducher), at Lyons, France, who was especially interested in a rose which he sent her of a pale-yellow color, and she wrote Mr. Richardson that she had a sport from this rose in her own garden, which, if successful in propagation, she would name for him; hence the name which has interested you as applying to the beautiful copperish-yellow rose. . . . Mr. Richardson lived until 1892 in his country home near here, and would have enjoyed, if he might have foreseen, the interest which his namesake has aroused in the mind of an English writer of to-day like yourself."

And now we know. The secret is out, and the rose will smell no less sweet for it, nor climb less carelessly, nor refresh the eye less graciously. But I adjure America to be more proud of this feather in her cap. I do not suggest that William Allen Richardson should have a monument, for he has one in every right garden more beautiful than marble and very likely more enduring than bronze; but his name should be so deeply cut upon the roll of honor that no one need ever have to ask my question again.

But what a blow to that romantic anecdote about Ellen!

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EDUCATIONAL ENGINEERS

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

OUR modern civilization has brought forth many kinds of engineers: civil engineers, mining engineers, electrical engineers, etc. I am writing concerning the importance of training educational or school engineers. There is a definite and distinct work that can be done by such engineers which is not being done, or at least is not being done as thoroughly and as systematically as it should be. Let me illustrate.

In the average community, in spite of all that has been said and written on the subject, there is still little real connection between what is done in the school-room and the life of the surrounding community. This is largely true whether the school is a city school, a country school, a high school, academy, or college; but the average country school is, it seems to me, in a worse plight in this respect than any of the others mentioned.

There are few sights more pathetic in purely rural districts than the ordinary country school-house. Usually it is a little, lonesome building, stiff and unattractive in architecture, standing out in some old field, having not a single thing, either in its location, its outward appearance, or the work that goes on inside it, that indicates any connection whatever with the daily life of the people by whom it is surrounded. The very style and appearance of such a school building suggests a separation between school life and actual life that ought not to exist.

There is no earthly reason why a country school-house, in location, appearance, or any other respect, should be very different, inside or out, from the average farmer's cottage. In fact, there is no reason why a country school should not have both the appearance and the character of a model country home. My notion of a country school is a vine-covered cottage in the middle of a garden, with fruit and flowers and vegetables growing all about it. It should have a stable attached, with horses, cows, chickens, a good well, plenty of hay and fodder, and a little repair shop connected with the barn, where boys might learn something of the trades that are necessary for a farmer to know. Inside the school there should be, in addition to the assembly-room, a kitchen, dining-room, and bedroom, where the children might learn to cook their own dinners, wash dishes, set the table, and make the beds and take care of the home. In such a school as I have in mind, also, the teaching of the book should connect it directly with the interests and problems of the locality. If the school is in a community where dairying is prominent, there should be a vital connection between dairying and what is done in the school-room; if in a grape-raising, coal-mining, cotton-raising, manufacturing, or a potato-producing community, the same kind of connection should be brought about in the school-room and the community.

The work of the school engineer, as I conceive it, should be to go into a community or a county, make a study of the ordinary normal activities and interests of that community or that county, and then set to work directing and helping the teacher and the school authorities to reconstruct conditions inside and outside of the school in accordance with some plan which would make that school of the greatest possible use to the community in which it is located. The school in a farming community should get its arithmetic problems from the farm. The reading lessons, the grammar lessons, the lessons in history and science, should be ordered, arranged, and taught from the point of view of the farmer, with a view to enlarging, enriching, and improving, not merely the farms, but the homes and country life generally.

A model country school should be the center, not merely of the intellectual life of the countryside, but of all the efforts that are now being made by the county, State, and National governments to improve farming conditions. It should maintain, when possible, in connection with the school, a little experiment station and laboratory where new methods could be publicly demonstrated and tried out.

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It should maintain a library. It should provide lectures on subjects of special interest to the community; it should maintain a school bank and teach the art of saving and investing money, and constantly strive in every way to widen the circle of its light and its influence among the people.

While much of the work I have suggested has been attempted in various parts of the country, I believe there is a very positive advantage in having an expert, a school engineer, who could come in from the outside, look over the whole situation, draw up plans, if necessary, that would harmonize conflicting interests and establish a definite policy by which the work of the school might be directed during a series of years.

Much good would come, I am sure, from the suggestions which such an expert could make in so simple a matter as laying out the school grounds, or the choice and use of books in a rural school library.

While the suggestions I have made apply to the average country schools in other parts of the country, I have in mind especially the needs of the Negro country and city schools in the Southern States.

My experience and observation of Negro schools in the South have taught me that in the simple arrangement of pictures a great educational work could be done. Many teachers do not know how to hang pictures, do not know a good picture from a bad one. The average teacher, left to himself, does not appreciate to what extent it is possible and necessary to insist upon cleanliness and system and order in the schools. Some of our schools have to struggle so hard merely to exist that they have lost sight of the high standards they started out with, and have come to believe that the disorder in which they carry on their work is inevitable and must be endured.

A school engineer, such as I have described, could go into such a community and such a school and totally change in a few weeks the condition of things in this respect. He could bring about a helpful relation between parents and teacher, something which does not exist in the average school community. He could, in short time, by means of his work in the schools and his talks to the people, materially change public sentiment in that community, and often bring to a neglected school the support that is needed to make its work effective.

I speak with the more confidence in regard to the rural Negro schools because I have seen during the past few years what has been accomplished by our own graduates in some of the rural schools in the neighborhood of Tuskegee Institute.

One thing that has particularly interested me has been the progress that has been made by these teachers in the use of paint and whitewash. I can remember when there was not a foot of whitewash or paint either on a school building or any of the houses for miles around our Institute, and the teacher would have thought it quite improper to suggest to his students the value of whitewash in keeping their homes in a neat, cleanly, and healthful condition. I have seen the same communities so completely changed through the newer ideas of education to which I have referred that nearly every house is now either whitewashed or painted. In some cases this was brought about by the teacher in this way: In the lessons in mathematics a pupil would first be required to measure the number of square feet in his own home and calculate the cost of whitewashing. Then, a few days later, this same pupil would, perhaps, be asked to write an essay on the value of whitewashing in beautifying the appearance of a house. The teacher found, also, that the students could write compositions that would mean something and that would be of living interest on the "Methods of Whitewashing and the Result of Whitewashing." In this way an interest was awakened in the matter of whitewashing, and, when the results began to show themselves in the appearance of the school and the homes of the school-children, the parents began to feel that the school had a living, vital interest in them, and to realize what they had never understood before—that the school had some relation to the needs of ordinary daily life.

There is a real place, then, I repeat, for the school engineer, and I hope that a larger number of institutions will begin training men and women for this kind of work.

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THE NEW BOOKS

The title of "The History of the Confederate War," by George Cary Eggleston, might be thought to indicate that it is written from the Confederate point of view. This is not the case. But neither is it written from the Northern point of view. The author has, on the whole, very successfully maintained a position of detachment, and has written his story as one whose sympathies are not enlisted on either side. He recognizes very fairly, and, considering the necessary brevity of the treatment, with adequate fullness, both the slavery question and the States' rights question which led to the war, and the position of the two parties upon both questions. His detachment is not that of one who views with academic or encyclopædic temperament either the issues or the personalities involved in this dramatic struggle. But his estimates and opinions appear to be very little affected by partisan considerations. He criticises Jefferson Davis for his treatment of General Joseph E. Johnston, but he criticises even more severely General Halleck's treatment of General Grant. He does not disguise his admiration for Abraham Lincoln, but his admiration for General Robert E. Lee is also not disguised. His descriptions of the great strategic methods in the war are very lucid. So are his descriptions of the great battles, though the latter are given without details. His judgments of both men and measures seem to us, in the main, sound, though upon some points we must certainly disagree with him. We do not think that the attitude of Virginia would have been effectual in preventing the war if her neutrality could have been respected and so preserved. Nor do we think that there is the least possibility that if the first battle of Bull Run had been followed up by an energetic advance on Washington, "perhaps four years of the bloodiest of modern wars might have been spared to the American people." Nor do we think that if Lee had conquered at Gettysburg and had advanced either upon Washington, Philadelphia, or New York, the issue of the war would have been different; although, if Meade had followed up his dearly bought victory and captured Lee's forces, as we think he might have done, the war might have been brought to a speedier conclusion. Nothing, however, could really have averted or ended it but the final decision of the two questions—that human slavery should never again exist on American soil; and that, whatever the Constitution might say about it, nullification and secession should be forever impossible of accomplishment by any American State. We, however, cordially commend Mr. Eggleston's History, especially to our younger readers, as admirable in spirit, in its general presentation of the facts accurate and adequate, generally just in its estimates of men, and graphic and interesting in style. (Sturgis & Walton Company, New York. 2 vols. $4.)

The publisher tells us that "The Red Symbol," by John Ironside, is "a tale of love, mystery, and adventure." That describes it accurately. We have only to add that the adventures would be impossible even in the land in which the scene is chiefly laid, Russia, the land where nothing seems impossible except the commonplace. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.50.)

The anonymous writer of several glorious and gorgeous volumes writes a story of the Russian Court with as much ease and flow of language as she depicted "The Martyrdom of an Empress." "Snow-Fire" presumably symbolizes the loves of noble Russians, who travel from north to south and back again, smothered in luxury. Our words fail us in the presence of the wealth of adjective used by this fluent writer, but any one who really read her former books will know exactly what to expect. Curiously enough, he will probably want to read "Snow-Fire," in spite of his taste and principles. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

"Wilt thou not ope thy heart to know what rainbows teach and sunsets show?" is the motto explaining "A Cycle of Sunsets," by Mabel Loomis Todd. Contemplating the beauty and meaning of the twilight sky, she was moved to write of it, under such dates throughout the year as offered subject for thought. The style is elevated and serene, and will awaken response in those who love quiet thought. A diaphanous love story is woven among the sunsets, and glimpses of life in a college town are given to bind the dreams to earth. (Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. $1.20.)

It would be hard to pack more matter in small space than Mr. Albert A. Hopkins has put into "The Scientific American Handbook of Travel." This is not a guidebook, but an information book—hotels (there is a list of 2,000), money, distances, cost of trips, railway rates, baggage, cable rates, vocabularies, steamship flags and funnel marks, wireless methods, cipher codes, fees, icebergs—but to make a list of a tenth of the things would take a page. Particularly full is the information about automobiling in Europe. A little book, this, of wonderfully varied usefulness. (Munn & Co., New York. $1.50.)

Half a dozen papers originally published in the "American Magazine," now somewhat rewritten and rearranged, have been collected in a volume entitled "The Spiritual Unrest." It is a layman's report upon the present condition of religion in its organized forms among Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews, as observed for the most part in the city of New York. Limited as this field

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is, it may be regarded as typical of urban conditions generally. Rather somber as the report is, it is evidently honest, and by no means unhopeful. Whatever decay the author, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, finds in organized religion, he finds religious forces as yet unorganized ready to enter into forms of spiritual power. He finds faith among the unchurched, and has visions of a new evangelism, a new type of Christianity, and the new social order to which it will give birth. (The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.35.)

A more impressive exhibition of the stupendous intellectual, scientific, and commercial activity of our age can scarcely be conceived than is to be found in the two volumes comprising the "Century Dictionary Supplement" (edited by Benjamin E. Smith, with the assistance of seventy-nine collaborators). So rapid has been the advance in the various fields of human thought and work within the past two decades that the Century Dictionary, which in 1891 was regarded as the completest word-book in the language, now requires the addition of two large volumes to the original ten to hold the mass of accumulated matter. The new developments in science and the arts have brought with them new vocabularies, and these, with careful winnowing to eliminate ephemeral or otherwise undesirable expressions, receive clear, succinct, and almost uniformly satisfactory treatment in this Supplement. As illustrative of the changes necessary in the dictionary, take the word automobile. In 1891 the only definition given of this word was as an adjective, "self-moving." In the Supplement nearly half a page is devoted to a description of the various vehicles known to us by this familiar name. The anæsthetic "stovaine" was unknown in 1891. In 1910 we have the following definition, which we quote as a typical illustration of the combination of technical and popular information so desirable in such a work: "Stovaine [an arbitrary rendering into English of F. *Fourneau* ('stove'), the name of the discoverer]. The hydrochlorid of benzoylethyldimethylaminopropanol, $CH_3C(C_2H_5)(OC_7H_5O)CH_2N(CH_3)_2HCl$: a local anesthetic resembling cocaine but weaker in its effect and less poisonous. *Sci. Amer.*, Dec. 14, 1907, p. 443." While glancing over the pages of the new volumes, the writer was asked, "What is a snark?" Here we find "snark" under two headings, "snark" and "blend-word," though this humorous term and its derivation, originating with that ingenious word-maker Lewis Carroll, are not found in older dictionaries. The plan of the Supplement is essentially similar to that of the original Century Dictionary. The omission, however, of the pronunciation of words included in the older volumes, but with additional meanings defined in the new, is sometimes inconvenient. Take, for instance, the word spoken of above, automobile, in its use as a noun: is it *automo'bile* or *automobeel'?* One must turn from the new to the old volumes for enlightenment on this point, and then remain in doubt. The typography, also, while similar to that of the main work, is not an improvement upon it; the first edition of the Century Dictionary, with its new type, its beautifully engraved woodcuts, and its admirable presswork, remains an unsurpassed model among English dictionaries. The new volumes, however, are in almost all respects admirable; they will be exceedingly welcome to all professional men, intelligent workers in the arts, and the reading public generally; they form an indispensable adjunct to the original Century Dictionary; and this means that every school, office, and library, and every individual who can afford it, must possess them. The value of the Supplement is greatly enhanced by the inclusion of nearly a hundred pages of biographical and geographical matter as an addition to the Cyclopedia of Names, which brings that very useful feature of the Century Dictionary down to the present time. (The Century Company, New York. $12.)

"The Wild Olive" has evidently excited unusual interest as it has been appearing in serial form, and as a book it bids fair to equal in popularity its predecessor, "The Inner Shrine." The anonymous author of these stories, said by many people to be the Rev. Basil King, has marked ability in finding situations unhackneyed and not easy to solve, and he has equal originality in dealing with these situations, not so much through plot as through character. Nothing could more vividly appeal to the reader's attention than the plight of the young man who is convicted of a murder he has not committed, escapes as he is being transferred from one prison to another, and is saved from capture through the courage and ingenuity of a young woman whose name he does not know for many years, but whom he calls in his own mind the "Wild Olive." What he does with his life, and what discordant appeals of love and honor come to his heart and conscience, form the material for personal problems of an absorbing interest. The literary fault of the novel is a certain hardness of treatment which keeps the reader from feeling deep sympathy with either of the two chief characters. Of the few minor people in the story, one at least, the lawyer Conquest, is capitally depicted. The book will be a success, we judge, not so much because of the way in which it is written as because of its novel subject-matter and the author's skill in keeping the crisis in doubt. Yet, when one lays the book down, one feels that far the most dramatic part of it lies in the first two or three chapters. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

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LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

DIRECTOR SMITH ON CONSERVATION

In view of the particular significance which it would seem you attach to my testimony before the Ballinger-Pinchot Investigating Committee, you will doubtless consider it important that my views on public land questions be clearly presented. Hence, although appreciating fully as I do the space limitations which control editorial utterances, and realizing the difficulty of condensing the essence of a record of 120 pages into two columns, I believe that you may welcome such brief comment on your editorial note as may aid in defining the position of myself and many of my associates more clearly and with greater accuracy.

Your statement that I regard the passing of public land into private ownership as wise policy is to be accepted without qualification only as regards agricultural land and actual settlement. The definition of my attitude, which you quote, appears in the record as a part of a conversation between Mr. Newell and myself about the then newly enacted Enlarged Homestead Act (page 3433). My indorsement of that Act is to be construed as an approval of the Homestead principle, which is aptly described in your editorial on National Conservation in this same issue of The Outlook as having accomplished the end of building up "a self-respecting, industrious rural population" and as therefore "wise" legislation. The Enlarged or 320-Acre Homestead Act is even more stringent in its requirements as to actual residence and cultivation than the original 160-acre law. As a further indication of my dissent from the conclusion that is likely to be drawn from your general statement that I "regard it as a wise policy to promote the passing of public land into private ownership," I wish to call your attention to page 3533 of the record, where, in cross-examination by Mr. Graham, I stated that I do not favor the Government's parting absolutely with title to water power sites, and my opposition to such a policy is the reason that I have taken so much interest in the question of power site withdrawals and water power legislation, not to mention the existence of the spirit that has impelled the activity of the United States Geological Survey in recommending other withdrawals of public land in aid of classification and legislation.

In your comment upon the Alaska coal land situation you state, "the purport of his [my] answers was that it was desirable to hand over these coal lands in Alaska to great corporations." I should say rather that the purport of my testimony was that the development of coal lands in Alaska should not be indefinitely delayed, but should be permitted to proceed under the most favorable conditions to the Nation that can be imposed; that, because of the adverse physical conditions that exist in the Territory, it is probable that development will be possible only in case the lands are permitted to be handled in sufficiently large bodies for strong financial interests to operate there. My statement that I believed the patenting and developing of the Cunningham claims—which, after all, represent but a small portion of but one of the Alaska fields—would be for the best interests of Alaska and the Pacific Coast should not be construed as favoring corporation interests as against public interests, inasmuch as this statement was both preceded and followed by my assertion that Congress possesses and should exercise the right to regulate the selling price of coal, because it is a commodity affecting the whole industrial life of the Nation. Your quotation "that the operation of coal mines by the large and strong interests which also control the railways in a given field would be a conserving practice, because it would involve large units," is to be read with the knowledge that the question under discussion at that particular moment was conservation as opposed to waste, and hence the statement means that the actual mining practice of large and well-managed companies controlling relatively large bodies of coal land is less wasteful of the product than the practice of smaller companies operating within narrower limits and with less perfect equipment.

I regret that in your condensed statement the mention of my anxiety to protect the Geological Survey against the unpopularity that might result from "special agent" work directly followed the mention of the Cunningham claims. There was, in fact, no connection between these two matters, and the Survey has not concerned itself as to whether its report on the coal or non-coal character of the land included in the Cunningham entries would be popular or unpopular with the entrymen.

Your inference that I would go further than the Secretary of the Interior in giving the benefit of the doubt to the settler rather than to the power site really deserves fuller statement. In specific cases I have recommended the cancellation, in whole or in part, of water power site withdrawals where investigation has shown that the present value of the water for purposes of irrigation exceeds even its prospective value for power. This means the sacrifice of public ownership in unharnessed water powers only where the development of the uncultivated land is of greater importance to the Nation. In the last case on which I made a recommendation to the Secretary of the Interior the abandonment of a possible water power development amounting to 410 horse-power for a part of the year only was essential to the granting of reservoir sites to provide storage for the irrigation of approximately 100,000 acres. In

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such cases as these the engineers of the Geological Survey endeavor to determine the principle of relative worth, and, whatever the decision, the end sought is "the greatest good of the greatest number for the longest time." "For the wealth of a nation lies in its people, not in its material possessions. Lands which are uncultivated, mines which are unopened, water powers which are unharnessed, are no more wealth than is money rolled up in a stocking and stowed away in a trunk," as well stated in The Outlook of May 14, 1910.

Your statement that I do not "believe very heartily in the process of making large withdrawals for the purpose of making sure the retention of public ownership and power sites" is true only in the sense that I do not believe in making large withdrawals where small ones will fully accomplish the purpose. In practically all cases our preliminary withdrawals are eventually modified by the "paring down" process when sufficient information has been accumulated to enable us to do this accurately. But inasmuch as preliminary withdrawals largely in excess of the areas that will eventually be retained in public ownership, pending legislation, mean withholding all of this excess from public entry, and hence from the possibility of home-building, it is regarded as merely axiomatic that the original withdrawals should include as little excess land as may be.

GEORGE OTIS SMITH, Director.

Department of the Interior,
United States Geological Survey,
Washington, D. C.

[The Director of the Geological Survey does not regard The Outlook's report of his testimony as inaccurate. He does, however, believe it was inadequate, and we are glad to have him present in our columns this modification of that report and this supplementary statement of his views. We note with gratification that Mr. Smith does not favor the Government's parting absolutely with title to water power sites; nor the passing of lands other than homestead lands without qualification into the hands of private parties; and that he does favor the control by the Government of the selling price of coal. It is plain, however, that The Outlook's view of Conservation and Mr. Smith's are radically different.—THE EDITORS.]

MARGARET FULLER

Apropos of the hundredth birthday of Margaret Fuller, which occurred on May 23, I would like to call attention to one of her most famous books, "Woman in the Nineteenth Century," as it is very applicable to the "woman question" which is agitating public thought to-day. A writer in the "Westminster Review" of 1856 said: "Any book which bears the name of Margaret Fuller is certain of an affectionate welcome in England. . . . It was allotted to the author of 'Woman in the Nineteenth Century' to exhibit in herself those rich elements of character which she claims for her sex in those pages. In this essay we have a faithful reflex of the writer—her solid culture, rich imagination, and untiring enthusiasm. We see everywhere gleams of her own ideal. . . . Her demand is for freedom from unjust legal restrictions, for that precious power of self-help which is the inalienable right of every human soul. With this, she argues, and with this only, will woman really know what she needs, what she can become, what her appropriate duties and aspirations should be. It is refreshing, after all the dreary sentimentalism with which this subject is visited, to find the question stated on the broad basis of an undeniable principle. 'All men are created equal,' says the American Declaration of Independence; but practically it becomes equal in all save sex and colour. . . . It is the most hopeful symptom to see so clear and earnest a plea for women by one of their own sisterhood."

If those women of to-day who show such an aggressive, repulsive attitude in regard to those great principles of freedom—freedom to work out their individuality and exercise that "precious power of self-help"—would but study this great book of Margaret Fuller's, take it as their guide and watchword, they would be saved from many a false step which retards progress. And it is well to remember that Margaret Fuller always laid stress upon the feminine duties, the feminine graces, those differentiating qualities from man which are full of charm and beauty: "Were women free, were they wise," she says, "fully to develop the strength and beauty of women, they would never wish to be men, nor man-like." She herself, with all her intellectual force and mastery, was a thoroughly womanly woman, with a tender heart, a captivating charm; she herself found her greatest happiness in motherhood; she dearly loved little children, and children were drawn to her as by an irresistible magnet. Don't let the women of to-day forget Margaret Fuller and her wise counsels. A new edition of her book should be published, that every one's life and thought might be enriched and made worthier.

KENYON WEST.

Montclair, New Jersey.

A SANER FOURTH OF JULY

After all, John Adams somehow understood the Saner Fourth better than many a latter-day reformer, be he ever so wise or ever so judicious. John Adams, on that memorable evening of July 2, 1776, wrote to his wife, Abigail (as it was his wont every evening to write her), in these immortal words: "The second day of July, 1776, will be a memorable epocha in the history of America. I am apt to believe that it will be celebrated by succeeding generations as the great Anniversary Festival. It ought to be commemorated as the day of deliverance by solemn acts of devotion to God Almighty. It ought to be solemnized with pomp, shows,

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games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires and illuminations, from one end of the continent to the other, from this time forward forever."

Would it not be rather an interesting venture on our part, after these one hundred and thirty-four years, to follow the programme sketched for us by the founder of the "Great Anniversary Festival"? And why not? As Mr. Adams says, "You will think me transported with enthusiasm; but I am not. I am well aware of the toil and blood and treasure that it will cost us to maintain this declaration, and support and defend these states. Yet, through all the gloom, I can see the rays of light and glory; I can see that the end is more than worth all the means, and that posterity will triumph although you and I may rue, which I hope we shall not." And such enthusiasm ought to be in the hearts of the mighty mass of men who keep holiday in the name of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

Why should we not commemorate the "day of deliverance" by the ringing of bells and the salute of guns? Why should not pageants, dances, games, sports, and pomp itself (whatever that may mean) be enjoyed upon the public playgrounds of our great cities or on the beautiful old "commons" of our New England towns and villages? Why not bonfires and illuminations? Why not, indeed?

With a programme such as John Adams saw in his vision of the celebration of the future, the youth of our municipal life would find educational value as well as in festivities which mean light and noise and excitement. One can conjure it up at once, if one but follows the spontaneous plan which the great patriot set forth in his enthusiasm. The bells and guns at sunrise! The pageant, or "procession," as we Americans are likely to organize it, should be held before the heat of the day bears down upon the moving spectacle and upon the still larger congregations of moving humanity who gather to witness the same. At twelve o'clock bells again, with cannonading, and the sports, games, and shows arranged for the later afternoon. At sunset the bells and guns again, with "bonfires and illuminations" to keep company with the twinkle of stars at the approach of night.

But will the crusaders for a Saner Fourth go the greater length and follow to the letter the words of John Adams? "It ought to be commemorated as the day of deliverance by solemn acts of devotion to God Almighty." Can we persuade our twentieth-century leaders of the Fourth of July celebrations to ask that church celebrations be held? That a prayer of thanksgiving for our Democracy shall be issued by command by the Governors of our States, to be offered in the churches, and an interpretation of the Fourth of July be delivered by the priest or minister of the church, or by some patriotic orator who will set forth the meaning of our anniversary festival?

If our public school children could celebrate this great and glorious day during the school year as they celebrate George Washington's or Lincoln's Birthday, there would be no special educational reason to emphasize the day through addresses and public oratory; but the youth of our country are not acquiring the spirit of 1776 through any school-day observation. It is true that in the upper grades, where only a small proportion of our working people's children ever arrive, the history class does cover the epoch of Independence as a real study, and in the lower grades the story of the minute men at Lexington and Bunker Hill is dwelt upon with fervor as the 19th of April and the 17th of June annually approach. But it is very seldom that much time is given to the interpretation of the document and to the principles that make the Declaration of Independence the sacred statement of rights that it is.

It behooves us to educate our children along lines of patriotism and to emphasize the causes of the birth of our Nation as well as to immortalize the virtue and courage of the men who shaped its policies or who, as great constitutionalists, have kept our country from division. It will not matter much if at the outset grown men do not attend the public services. But it will matter tremendously if by an annual service on the Fourth of July we can help to educate the coming generation of citizens to appreciate more intelligently the causes which made the War of Independence and the manly virtue of the men who set forth reasons to justify such a war in the sight of God and men.

Our churches are lending themselves most wisely to the work of citizenship. In asking that our "temples of God" should assume one more official duty, we urge what is in keeping with the spirit and movement of the time. A Socialistic writer in one of to-day's current newspapers writes: "People whose humanitarianism and idealism have been nourished by religion are turning to the task of making Americans of these [the immigrant] people. . . . People of the churches who are doing this work are aiming, not at a change of religion among these people, but at a new standard of life."

Here is certainly one appropriate undertaking in our religious field. And it is not alone to educate the immigrant in patriotism but yearly to revivify intelligent loyalty in the minds and hearts of the children whose past generations have aided in making America the "home of the brave and the land of the free."

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[It will be noticed that Mr. Adams in the letter quoted speaks of the *second* of July as the day to be commemorated. Our readers will remember that the resolution in favor of independence was passed by the Continental Congress on that day; the Declaration of Independence was agreed to on the *fourth*, and it is the latter day which has been chosen for celebration.—THE EDITORS.]

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